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THE TEACHER AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

William C. Reavis

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IN PREPARATION

SCHOOLS AND THE SOCIAL ORDER

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2

The TEACHER AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

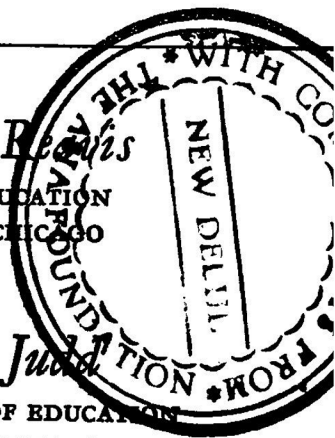
William C. Beards

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

AND

Charles H. Judd

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PREFACE

THIS BOOK is an outgrowth of twenty years of experimental efforts to develop fundamental course material dealing with the administrative responsibilities and relations of teachers and with the problems of administration that are of vital concern to teachers. Many students preparing for teaching positions, many experienced teachers, and many persons engaged in public school administration who have studied in the Department of Education of the University of Chicago have taken the course in which the materials presented in the twenty chapters of this volume have been used. The critical reactions of these students have been of great value to the authors in their determination of the scope and the organization which the treatise has finally taken.

In the writing of the book, the needs of readers of four types have been constantly kept in mind: (1) students in teacher training institutions who have had no experience in classroom teaching; (2) teachers in service whose training for administrative or noninstructional duties has been neglected and who now realize the importance of a thorough knowledge of the place of the teacher in educational administration; (3) persons preparing for administrative positions in village, town, and city school systems; and (4) administrators who desire to consider with their teachers the numerous responsibilities and interests of those teachers in the administrative aspects of education. To meet the needs of such individuals, institutions which prepare teachers are offering courses in "Classroom Management," "Classroom Administration," and "Classroom Management."

and Control," "School Management," "School Administration," "Introduction to Public-School Administration," and the like. The purpose of all these courses is much the same, namely, to acquaint teachers with their administrative functions.

Analysis of the materials presented in the textbooks ordinarily used in such courses reveals that many important areas have been neglected. Some textbooks provide only a partial treatment of the administrative responsibilities of the teacher; most neglect entirely the important matter of the teacher's administrative relations; few develop from the teacher's point of view the administrative problems which involve the teacher's personal and professional welfare. Because of the inadequacies of the textbooks used in the courses in management or administration, teachers frequently enter service with insufficient knowledge concerning their administrative duties. As a result promising teachers often fail to secure re-election to their positions because of unintentional neglect of their administrative responsibilities or because of lack of understanding of administrative relations. Furthermore, administrative problems which involve their personal and professional welfare may cause them at times to oppose their own best interests and to support causes which may injure their personal and professional standing with school officers and the supporting community.

The volume here presented attempts to provide a systematic and well-balanced treatment of all the areas of educational administration considered fundamental to teachers. It is written from the viewpoint of the teacher and is intended to supply the information needed by teachers in meeting the array of administrative responsibilities which are encountered at all levels of service.

In undertaking this comprehensive treatment, the authors have found it necessary to draw extensively on the works of other students of teacher problems and educational administration. In the context and in appropriate footnotes, proper acknowledgment is given, both to authors and to their publishers, for the contributions cited and for permission generously granted to use quoted

PREFACE

material. Without the support of the authorities cited, many the authors' conclusions would be deprived of much of their value. Special acknowledgment is also given to the Chairman of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, Professor Ralph Winfred Tyler, for permission to draw on the annotated bibliographies published in the *Elementary School Journal* and the *School Review* for many of the selected references suggested for supplementary reading. Finally, to Miss Edith Lawrie and Mrs. Marion Furnas deep appreciation is due for secretarial services and painstaking assistance in proofreading and in the preparation of the index.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS
CHARLES H. JUDD

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PART I

ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

OF THE TEACHER

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

IT is very generally agreed that the most important duty of the teacher is classroom instruction. The numerous other duties which the teacher performs, such as managing the pupils, looking after instructional supplies, directing the out-of-class activities of pupils, caring for school facilities, participating in the planning of expenditures, keeping records, making reports, and cultivating wholesome relations with the community, are usually regarded as entirely incidental to the major responsibility of instruction. True enough, these numerous duties are subordinate to instruction but they also condition instruction and to a considerable extent determine its success. Teachers are evaluated on the efficiency with which these noninstructional duties are performed. More teachers probably fail to secure reappointment to positions because of inability to perform their noninstructional duties acceptably than from mediocrity or even incompetency in instruction. The explanation for this anomalous situation is the fact that parents and boards of education can evaluate the character of performance of the less technical, nonteaching or administrative duties more easily than they can evaluate the more technical duty of instruction.

EARLY EMPHASIS PLACED ON NONTEACHING DUTIES

Parents and board members in colonial and pioneer times failed to grasp the vital relationship between instructional and administrative duties. For example, discipline or the ability to control pupils was generally regarded as a function of education

largely dissociated from instruction. To many parents discipline was an end in itself that required a type of competence usually considered of greater importance than the ability to impart instruction. This view was reflected in freely quoted maxims of the time, such as "spare the rod and spoil the child," and "no lickin', no larnin'." As a result, school teachers were usually selected because of their reputations as disciplinarians rather than as instructors, and they retained their positions largely through ability to manage their pupils.

Reverend Eliphalet Nott, D.D., writing for the *American Journal of Education* in the middle of the last century, described this attention to discipline as he recalled it from his boyhood in Connecticut.

It was *felt* as a practical maxim "that to spare the rod was to spoil the child;" and on this maxim the pedagogue acted in the school-room, and applied it for every offense, real or imaginary; and for having been whipped at school by the relentless master, the unfortunate tyro was often whipped at home by his no less relentless father; so that between the two relentless executors of justice among the Puritan fathers, few children, I believe, were spoiled by the withholding of this orthodox discipline. For myself, I can say (and I do not think I was wayward beyond the average of district-school-boys) that, in addition to warnings, and admonitions daily, if I was not whipped more than three times a week, I considered myself for the time peculiarly fortunate.¹

The demand for teachers who could maintain classroom order gave rise occasionally to an extreme type of disciplinarian like the Hoosier master reported by Kennedy.

[He] walked about the room with a stick about four feet long under his arm, and now and then, without warning, would suddenly whack with brutal force some chap who sat at just the right distance for a good swing of the gad. A visitor protested after school that the effect was bad; the pupils didn't know why they were being hit, and a spirit of revenge would be engendered. "Those boys can never be whipped

¹ *American Journal of Education*, XIII (March, 1863), 132.

amiss," replied the teacher, "and it has a good effect upon the rest of the school."¹

The severity with which punishment was executed in the early schools is further illustrated by an incident which is reported by Charles Winston Green, a pupil of Samuel Hunt, Master of the Boston Latin School, 1776 to 1805.

He whipped me often and hard, and hurt confoundedly. One day I could not help crying bitterly. He called me up and seemed willing to console me. He said: "You know one Christopher Gore?" (afterwards Governor Gore). "Yes, Sir." "He's a great man, isn't he?" "Yes, Sir." "Do you know one Harrison Gray Otis?" "Yes, Sir." "He's a great man, is he not?" "Oh yes, Sir," said I. "I whipped it into them both!" said Master Hunt. I replied, "Guess you mean to make a plaguey great man of me." I was in a roaring passion, but the boys in the school laughed outright, and the old man smiled, and patted me on the head, and said, "Go to your seat, you rogue, I will not touch you again." And he never did.²

Other noninstructional duties considered by school trustees and school patrons as less important than discipline but nevertheless as essential to the success of the early teacher were: building the daily fire in the fireplace or stove; sweeping the room; making quill pens; preparing ink from the juice of berries; assisting in cutting the wood; leading in the schoolyard games at recess and noon; participating in evening activities, such as coon hunts, husking bees, spelling matches, pie suppers, and debates; and aiding school patrons with their chores after school and on Saturdays. The ability to perform these duties reasonably well, in addition to disciplinary control over pupils, atoned for many deficiencies in moral character and in instructional efficiency.

Duties of the type described in the foregoing paragraph have

¹ Millard F. Kennedy in collaboration with Alvin F. Harlow, *Schoolmasters of Yesterday*, pp. 78-79. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940.

² Pauline Holmes, *A Tercentenary History of the Boston Public Latin School, 1635-1935*, p. 80. Harvard Studies in Education, 25. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1935. (Reprinted by permission of the President and Fellows of Harvard College.)

largely disappeared in recent times. Even in backward communities it is seldom necessary for the teacher to perform any of them. In the place of these duties have developed many others which challenge the administrative skill of the teacher. Some are required by state law, others by regulations of state officials, and still others by local authorities. The number of such duties tends to increase each year as the organization and administration of schools grows in complexity.

MODERN CONCEPTION OF THE TEACHER'S DUTIES

The modern conception of the duties of the teacher is broadly comprehensive. It is true that improvement of children's knowledge is the objective most commonly referred to in a description of the functions of the school, but acquisition of knowledge is recognized as only one phase of the child's life. The phrase which is now often used in describing the goal of school learning is "training in behavior." Modern psychology recognizes the fact that the clearest evidence of an educated mind is proper conduct or behavior. That individual who knows what to do in all circumstances is called an intelligent, well-educated individual. The idea that has sometimes prevailed — that the mind is a storehouse of facts — has given place to the idea that the mind is a superior means of adjusting the individual to his physical and social environment. In the nursery school, kindergarten, and primary grades the problem is to give the child guidance in the cultivation of some of the simple habits of conduct which will make it possible for him to get on with the things and the people about him without those clashes and in-co-ordinations which make the individual unhappy and ineffective. As the pupil makes progress through the upper grades the school devotes itself less to the cultivation of habits, although it still emphasizes behavior. It tries to lay the foundation of proper behavior in precepts and information which will make it possible for the learner to act intelligently and with full knowledge of the

reasons why he should act in ways that will keep him in accord with the other members of society and with the laws of nature.

DUTIES OF TEACHER INFLUENCED BY CHANGE IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The American school is gradually changing from a one-room unit administered by a board of lay directors and conducted by a single teacher responsible only to the board, to a complex institution employing many teachers, who must co-operate with one another and must function under professional rather than lay management. The growth of cities and the assumption of direct responsibilities by the state for the organization, administration, and supervision of public education in towns, villages, and rural areas have led to the employment of professional administrators and supervisory officers who exercise a directing influence on the work of the teacher. The teacher is now a part of a complicated system. As such he must adjust himself to the whole professional group of which he is a part as well as to the newer conception of education.

TYPES OF DUTIES NOW PERFORMED BY TEACHERS

Analysis of the duties actually performed by teachers and of those recommended in books dealing with the work of teachers reveals a long list of activities. In an extensive investigation of the duties of teachers, Charters and Waples¹ were able to identify 1001 specific activities and to classify these into seven major divisions. Only one division pertains to the giving of instruction and this division contains only 122 activities, or approximately 12 per cent of the total list. Even here, it will be found on examination of the activities pertaining to instruction that there is a marked departure from the conception that instructing pupils

¹ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, pp. 304-472. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

consists merely in imparting information through lessons. Teachers, in addition to assigning work to pupils and instructing them, must give attention to planning instructional materials; setting up objectives; selecting and organizing subject matter; providing opportunities for pupil activities; developing interests; investigating and evaluating pupils' needs, abilities, and achievements; and providing facilities for individual study. The findings show that the schools are engaged in the important duty of guiding children in their behavior, not in formal instruction.

The other divisions of duties which teachers are expected to perform pertain to noninstructional or administrative responsibilities and relations. In these divisions 879 activities are reported and grouped under the classifications presented in Table 1.

Since 88 per cent of the duties of teachers are noninstructional or administrative in character, it is apparent that teachers, to be successful in modern schools, must acquire an understanding of administrative duties as well as of their duties in giving instruction.

TABLE 1. CLASSIFICATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY TEACHERS IN COMMONWEALTH TEACHER-TRAINING STUDY *

Classification	Number of Activities
Personnel relations with school staff.....	250
Contacts with pupils.....	216
Recording and reporting.....	168
Supervision of extra-curriculum activities (exclusive of activities involved in school and classroom management).....	158
Professional and personal advancement.....	43
School plant and supplies.....	22
Relations with members of school community.....	22

* Adapted from *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, *ibid.*, pp. 493-535.

IMPORTANCE OF ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES

It is a well-known fact that young teachers are much more likely to fail in their first teaching positions from lack of skill in performing their administrative duties than because of lack of knowledge of the subjects which they try to teach. They fail

INTRODUCTION

very often because they do not know how to keep order in their classes. This weakness is often charged to lack of experience. As a result, many boards of education in town and city system refuse to consider an applicant for a teaching position unless the candidate has had a minimum of two years of successful experience. The reasoning back of the rule is that through experience in a responsible position the novitiate acquires ability to manage pupils and to interest them in their studies. Teacher-training institutions have attempted to aid prospective teachers in preparation for their many duties by providing experience in training schools under competent supervision, the assumption being that the experience thus acquired is better than that received in the kinds of positions usually open to inexperienced teachers.

This book is devoted to a discussion of the noninstructional duties of teachers. It is assumed that preparation for instructional duties will be received by candidates for teaching position in connection with their study of various subjects. Formerly teacher-preparatory courses were devoted almost exclusively to instruction in so-called methods. It is now recognized that divorce of methods from knowledge of subject matter is a fatal mistake. The methods which are appropriate to classroom exercises in geography or Latin differ from the methods that are appropriate in geometry or laboratory science. Similarly divorce of methods and knowledge of subject matter is fatal to success in teaching. The special field which is covered in this book is of great importance. There is no conflict between noninstructional and instructional activities. Quite the contrary. The two types of activity are supplementary. Neither can safely be neglected.

INCREASE IN DUTIES REQUIRES INCREASE IN TRAINING

Since the number of duties required of teachers in modern schools is so great and varied in character, and because the sub

jects covered in the curriculum are becoming more numerous and more comprehensive, the program of training in professional schools is rapidly being lengthened. Four years of academic and professional work beyond the high school is now regarded very generally as the minimum training for a prospective teacher in elementary schools and five years is coming to be very common for those who expect to teach in secondary schools. For many years normal schools gave only two years of preparation for elementary-school teachers, and college graduation or even less was accepted as adequate training for teachers in secondary schools. Most school officials now demand evidence regarding an individual's ability to perform the various types of administrative as well as teaching duties. Without such administrative ability the prospective teacher experiences great difficulty in securing an initial appointment.

The teacher with limited academic and professional training but with many years of successful experience also finds that experience as such no longer affords adequate basis for securing a new position. Critical employers want to know how valuable has been the experience and whether or not the past experience has been of such a character that it is not a liability rather than an asset in insuring adjustment to the requirements of a new position. It is therefore evident that haphazard experience is of little worth to the teacher who desires to attain a high professional status. Only through superior training and careful study of the great number of duties which teachers are called on to perform can technical proficiency be achieved.

DUTIES INFLUENCED BY BOARD RULES AND REGULATIONS

Evidence of the number and complex character of the activities which modern teachers are expected to perform is found in the published rules and regulations of the boards of education in the better organized school systems of the United States. Many

boards of education, especially those in control of urban schools publish handbooks for their teachers. The rules and regulations set forth in these handbooks supplement the statement of duties made in state laws and in the regulations issued by state authorities, such as state superintendents, state boards of education, and state boards of health.

While the teacher must regard such rules and regulations issued by boards of education as furnishing in some measure the guidance needed in making adjustments to a local school system, it does not always follow that the guidance provided therein is adequate. In some school systems the rules and regulations of the board of education have never been published and consequently are not available for the teacher, except as instructions are issued through administrative officers. In other systems the rules and regulations may have been issued in published form but are only fragmentary in character, having been adopted by the boards from time to time as decisions became necessary in meeting emergencies in administration. The published rules of these school systems are therefore incomplete and provide only a partial guidance chart for the teacher. The teacher must take the initiative in assuming individual responsibility with pupils and in adjusting his relations with the other members of the employed personnel.

A well-prepared teacher should have made a study of administrative duties which is comprehensive enough to cover all emergencies and to supply a fundamental understanding of the purposes of education. Only when such a broad study has been made will the teacher understand what is demanded of a member of the teaching profession. One way in which a teacher can gain this broad view is through the examination of the rules of a number of boards of education.

NEEDS OF TEACHER FOR A KNOWLEDGE OF ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES

Analysis made by L. K. Klitzke of the duties specified in the adopted rules and regulations of a selected group of 150 city school systems¹ reveals a total of 379 nonteaching duties and 45 teaching duties which the boards of education in these cities require their teachers to perform. Of the nonteaching duties, 199, or approximately 52 per cent, are classified as managerial in character; 139, or nearly 37 per cent, as personal and professional; and 41, or a little over 11 per cent, as routine and clerical.

Administrative duties required of teachers

Klitzke divides the managerial duties into the nine groups which are shown in Table 2, the frequency of each group being the number of times the type of duty is specified in the rules and regulations of the 150 school systems analyzed. Here it is observed that duties pertaining to guidance, general control, and discipline have the highest frequency, 887, or an average of six such duties to the system. These duties are both general and specific in character. | The general duty most frequently specified

¹ L. K. Klitzke, "Duties of Teachers in City School Systems as Specified by Board Rules and Regulations," pp. 102-32. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934.

TABLE 2. FREQUENCY OF ENACTMENT OF MANAGERIAL DUTIES
REQUIRED OF TEACHERS AS FOUND IN THE RULES AND
REGULATIONS OF 150 CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS *

Rule or Regulation	Frequency
1. Guidance, general control, and discipline of pupils.....	887
2. Agents, advertisements, and subscriptions.....	203
3. Health and safety of pupils.....	197
4. Attendance of pupils.....	171
5. Books, equipment, and supplies.....	142
6. Building and grounds.....	75
7. Finance.....	50
8. Janitors.....	44
9. Routine.....	3

* Adapted from Klitzke, *ibid.*, pp. 102-32.

is that the teacher must maintain proper discipline, that is, proper order, on the part of pupils. Specific regulations prohibit the use of corporal punishment in maintaining discipline, although some boards of education permit the use of corporal punishment as a last resort, if administered in the presence of, or by, the school principal. About half of the systems permitting corporal punishment require that all cases be reported to the superintendent of schools in writing. Generally, the teachers are expected to secure good conduct and discipline by kindly and judicious means rather than through force or compulsion. Some school systems also prohibit the use of detention at intermission periods in securing discipline. Such systems generally specify in rules that cases of unusual difficulty in discipline are to be referred to the school principal. /

The duties classified under guidance, general control, and discipline of pupils require the teacher to accept responsibility for the development and management of the pupils entrusted to his care, to render assistance to the principal in the care and management of pupils in and about the school building when directed to do so, and to aid in the management of pupils before school opens and at intermission periods, while they are passing through halls and on stairs, and during play periods on the school premises. Teachers are prohibited by rule in a number of school systems from sending pupils on errands during school hours without the knowledge and consent of the principal.

Teachers are prohibited in many of the school systems from permitting advertisements or announcements not pertaining to school functions to be distributed or read to pupils without permission from the school superintendent. They are required to exclude canvassers and agents from the classrooms and to prevent the solicitation of subscriptions or contributions. Addresses, concerts, and entertainments by persons not connected with the school, unless authorized by the principal or superintendent, are quite generally forbidden as is also the giving out of lists of pupils.

/ The rules and regulations with respect to the health and safety of pupils hold the teacher responsible for the ventilation, lighting, and temperature of the classroom and require him to take the necessary precautions for health and safety protection. Co-operation with health authorities in enforcing health regulations is also enjoined.

Teachers are generally held accountable for the attendance of pupils and are responsible to administrative officers for routine duties relative to the reporting of truancy, absence, and illness of pupils. They are likewise expected to co-operate with parents by keeping the parents informed regarding pupil absence or tardiness. Pupils are not to be excused during a school session except on request from parents or guardians. Usually, the teachers are required to keep records of the attendance of pupils as a basis of reporting absence and tardiness./

Boards of education in the cities studied by Klitzke have enacted very specific regulations for the guidance of teachers in their duties pertaining to books, equipment, supplies, building, and grounds. Teachers are held directly responsible for the use and care of classroom furniture, books, apparatus, and supplies. They are expected to make periodic inspections of such materials and with the knowledge and consent of the school principal to impose fines for wanton damage done by pupils. The teachers are also expected to co-operate with the principal in keeping the classrooms and the school grounds clean and to report promptly any damage to the school building or its equipment.

Duties of teachers less frequently mentioned in the rules and regulations of the boards of education pertain to janitorial service, financial matters, and routine activities. Neglect of such duties by the teacher or derelictions in their performance may result in serious consequences. It is therefore important that even these infrequently required duties be fully understood and carefully observed.

Personal and professional duties

In the study by Klitzke, 139 personal and professional duties are mentioned 1120 times. These duties are classified into six groups, the order of frequency being: (1) personal duties, 418; (2) duties toward co-workers and superiors, 238; (3) duties with respect to training in service, 216; (4) duties toward parents and pupils, 192; (5) duties pertaining to professional study and reading, 34; and (6) duties in social and private life, 22.

Six personal duties which are specified ten or more times in the rules and regulations of the school systems under consideration are of such importance that they are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3. PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS MENTIONED MORE THAN TEN TIMES IN SCHOOL-BOARD RULES AND REGULATIONS OF 150 CITIES *

Responsibilities	Frequency
1. Must be familiar with rules and perform duties accordingly...	77
2. Shall report for duty 15 minutes before the opening of each school session.....	49
3. Shall not disseminate or allow denominational, partisan, or sectarian propaganda of any kind in the schools.....	33
4. Must give notice of at least 30 days if expecting to resign.....	28
5. Shall keep a copy of board rules and regulations on desk or in room.....	19
6. Women teachers must resign if marriage is contracted during a school term.....	16

* Klitzke, *ibid.*, p. 73.

In the relations of teachers with co-workers and superiors, boards of education very generally require the fullest co-operation. Teachers are expected to notify the school principal or superintendent if unable to report for duty; they are not to leave the school building before the close of school without the permission of the principal; they are to accept the instructions of superior officials, and to carry out the policies of the school system faithfully. In case of grievances or disputes, complaint or appeal can be made directly to the superintendent and finally to the board of education.

Duties imposed by board rules and regulations with respect

to in-service training require attendance at all regular and special meetings authorized or called by the school superintendent. Frequently, special visitation of schools and classrooms other than those in which a person is teaching is called for in order that he may observe methods of instruction and discipline. It must be said that some of the other duties listed under this classification are of little importance, tending to reveal a totally inadequate conception of in-service training by the makers of rules in the school systems under consideration. One such is that the teacher shall not permit the use of pins or tacks on woodwork, and glue or paste on blackboards.

The rules and regulations pertaining to the duties of teachers toward parents and pupils are intended primarily to avert conflicts between home and school. Teachers are required to provide necessary information for parents and pupils regarding schedules and regulations. However, written communications to parents must be submitted for approval of the school principal. Possible conflicts must be avoided by declining to accept presents from pupils and by refusing to offer rewards to pupils except in those cases explicitly approved by the board of education.

Apparently, boards of education have enacted very few regulations pertaining to professional study or to the social and private life of teachers. The responsibility for the direction of the professional study of teachers is evidently regarded as a matter to be determined by the teacher and professional officers. The social and private life of teachers is usually thought of as a matter of personal concern to the individuals themselves. Some boards of education make specific suggestions regarding the social and private affairs of teachers, such as "Private life must dignify education"; a few boards enact specific regulations, such as "Teachers shall not attend dances and card parties" and "Teachers are requested not to attend social affairs on nights preceding school days." Regulations of this specific type are generally regarded as an unwise use of discretionary power by boards of education.

Routine and clerical duties

The duties of teachers classified as routine and clerical by Klitzke¹ are of three types, namely, (1) the keeping of records and the preparation of reports required by the school system, (2) the keeping and making of records and reports concerning pupils, and (3) the keeping of records on books and supplies. The duties of greatest importance are those that pertain to permanent school records, reports to the central office, reports to parents, and the inventories of equipment and supplies. The lack of emphasis on routine and clerical duties in the rules and regulations of boards of education probably signifies that in the judgment of these officials the time of the teacher must not be unwisely consumed by duties commonly regarded as clerical. Some boards go as far as to supply clerical assistance for such duties.

It is evident from the scope of nonteaching duties prescribed for teachers in the rules and regulations of boards of education in city school systems that teachers are regarded as administrative officers. The emphasis given to administrative or nonteaching duties in the rules and regulations reveals both the need for specific instruction in the performance of such duties and the importance attached by boards of education to efficient performance. The teacher must therefore strive to become proficient in administrative duties as well as in instruction.

The classification of nonteaching duties made in the study of the rules and regulations of boards of education is somewhat different from that made in the Commonwealth investigation, yet the character of the duties and the proportion of teaching and nonteaching duties in the two studies are approximately the same. The lesson both for the teacher at the threshold of the profession and for the teacher already established in the profession is that nonteaching as well as teaching duties should be studied and that no member of the profession should labor under uncertainty with respect to the nature of his responsibilities.

¹ Klitzke, *ibid.*, p. 84.

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONS OF TEACHERS

Quite apart from any obligation that is imposed on teachers by rules and regulations and in addition to the duty of giving adequate instruction to pupils in subject matter are the broad social obligations to pupils which can be described only by saying that teachers are the representatives of the nation charged with the duty of preparing pupils to be good American citizens. Citizenship requires, it is true, knowledge which can be gained only by a study of the history and institutions of the country. Above and beyond such knowledge, however, citizenship depends on sound attitudes which teachers can help to cultivate only when they themselves enter with enthusiasm and vigor into national and community life, and when the school itself exemplifies the best forms of social organization. There is always danger that teachers will become absorbed in a narrow routine of duties and will lack the broad social vision which is necessary for competent leadership. Teachers should understand the essential characteristics of American civilization. They should be prepared to cultivate in pupils a respect for business, for labor, and for the opinion of others. They should emphasize at all times the importance of participation by individual citizens in public affairs. What is here advocated does not imply that teachers should inject partisan views into classroom exercises. It does imply, however, that teachers should be students of public questions and should be ready as a result of their comprehensive views of social life to do more than merely teach a certain list of required lessons.

There never was a period in the history of this country when it was so urgent as it is today that teachers think of themselves as carrying obligations that are broad and comprehensive. The importance of the teacher's task in modern society is clearly described by a leading political scientist in the following paragraph:

In every country the school system, whether in public or in private hands, is an important agency in the determination of the attitudes of

the next generation. The schools are the organized transmitters of group tradition and of group wisdom, and, on the plastic mind of youth, group characters may be written almost indelibly. What some of the primitive tribes attempted to do in a week, is undertaken in a modern educational system in a period of eight to twelve years, or more. Especially in recent times the school system is doubly important. In the last hundred years education has become compulsory, and it has been extended over a much longer range of life. Universal, compulsory, secular education has revolutionized the position of the schools in the life process, and made education one of the chief instrumentalities of modern society. Within a period of one generation the entire population of an average state passes through its schools, and this generation receives the impress society chooses to stamp upon it through this agency. There are, it need not be said, many other types of education than those received through the formal educational system, but this is the most systematic and most highly organized, most consciously contrived for the purpose of influencing directly the next generation.¹

The education of young people for effective citizenship requires that the teacher not only have a clear perspective of the aims of education and its functions in American life, but also that he understand and constantly keep in mind his own relations and those of the pupils with the various units of government in the school and in the community.

Sometimes teachers feel that national life is so remote that it lies entirely outside the range of their responsibility. The fact that education is not mentioned in the Federal Constitution and is only an implied power reserved to the states by the Tenth Amendment is probably responsible for the belief of some teachers that public education is not a matter of federal concern. If such a belief is held by any teacher, it is erroneous and should be corrected, for there are no schools, regardless of state or locality, which are not vitally affected in some constructive way through the interests and activities of the Federal Government.

¹ Charles Edward Merriam, *The Making of Citizens: A Comparative Study of Methods of Civic Training*, pp. 88-89. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931.

The influence of the Federal Government on the individual teacher is, of course, far less direct than is that exercised by the state. The United States Office of Education provides professional information for teachers through the research carried on by members of its staff and through its publications which are available either free or at nominal costs. The services of the Office of Education are largely advisory, although they approximate administrative control when federal funds are received and used by local schools. Where federal grants are received the conditions established by law or by the agents of the Federal Government acting under federal laws must be complied with. Since the public elementary and secondary schools of continental United States receive only 1.9 per cent of their revenue from federal sources, it is clear that the control of the Federal Government over the average teacher is at most very slight. Only those teachers who are employed in services, such as vocational education; rehabilitation education; Indian education; and the C.C.C., W.P.A., and N.Y.A. are subjected directly to federal control.

The legislature of a state has large powers in the organization, support, and control of public schools. It can regulate the school organization, prescribe the curriculum, designate standards for buildings, fix the minimum length of the school term, designate the ages of children eligible to attend school, determine the qualifications of teachers who will be permitted to teach, establish salary schedules, provide tenure, and set the age of retirement from service. All the foregoing powers and many more can be exercised by a state legislature, subject only to the restrictions imposed by its own constitution and that of the Federal Government. In a sense, the legislature of a state is a super school board which can use its power over local schools according to its discretion. It can delegate to the local school units the powers that it desires the local authorities to exercise. Some states have conferred broad powers over schools on local authorities; others have distributed the powers between the local authorities and state officials, the one serving as a check on the other.

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The teacher should be fully informed regarding the school code of his state, since some of his duties are specified in law. It is important that these legal duties be carefully observed. Furthermore, since the local board of education acts as the agent of the state legislature in the local unit, the rules and regulations enacted at its discretion are in effect law, subject, of course, to the interpretation of the courts.

The teacher is in much more intimate and direct relations with local school authorities than with either federal or state officials. He will no doubt know personally some or all of the local officials. These officials, although serving as agents of the state, are at the same time representatives of the people of the local unit. Many of their acts will be conditioned by local influence and personal considerations but when board actions are unduly controlled by purely local considerations, the board ceases to function as it should.

It is certainly desirable that the teacher refrain in all cases from using personal influences in his relations with the local authorities by whom he is employed. His employment should not be secured through personal "pull" or pressure. The use of such methods in securing appointment or special favors is unprofessional.

Since the responsibilities of local board members involve the exercise of technical and professional judgments, professional officers such as the superintendent, principal, and special supervisors are usually employed as executives and advisers. It is with these officers that the teacher is in constant daily contact. Seldom will it be necessary for the teacher to go beyond these professional officers in his relations with the local school unit. The school board employs the teacher, but such employment should be on the nomination of its professional executive. Promotion within the system, increase in salary, assignment of the teacher, and the supplies and equipment needed in instruction should come through the professional executive and not through personal influence with members of the board. Only in case of

recommended dismissal does there appear to be any good reason for a teacher's appeal from the recommendation of the professional executive to the board.

The relations of greatest importance to the individual teacher will be those with the school principal and with his immediate associates in the school in which he serves. These various relationships establish the teacher as a professional worker, as a contributing member of a professional group, and as an effective public servant of the community which employs him.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF CONCERN TO TEACHERS

Many problems in the organization and administration of schools are of great concern to teachers and should not be settled by state legislatures, local boards of education, and state and local professional officers without the fullest participation of teachers. Teachers have obligations to the public that extend beyond their duties as leaders of pupils. They know the needs of schools more intimately than do other groups of citizens. They have a right to participate with legislatures and school boards in determining policies with regard to their own functions as public servants. Teachers can properly take a part in policy-making, however, only when they acquaint themselves with the relation of the school to the general social order. When they have done this they may properly call the attention of the public to the historical fact that the settlements of educational problems which have been attempted without participation by professionally trained educators are never final.

In the past, all too many so-called "solutions to problems of great concern to the teaching profession" have been reached without consultation with the teachers affected. The method, whether employed by state legislatures, state boards of education, state departments of public instruction, or local boards of education and their professional executives, is wrong and results at best only in the temporary solution of problems. The low

professional morale created is detrimental to the cause of education and is hazardous to the American plan of government.

The problems of greatest concern to the teacher are those that pertain to his professional preparation; placement; professional, economic, and social security; professional ethics; and in-service improvement. Each of these problems has been the subject of legislative action, school-board regulation, long-term study by representative members of the teaching profession, and in more recent years deliberative consideration by the various groups directly concerned, namely, state legislatures, school-board associations, parent-teacher organizations, taxpayers' associations, and teachers' organizations.

In order that the individual teacher may contribute to the solution of these problems he must acquire a comprehensive understanding of the conditions and influences which affect his personal welfare and determine his professional status. Without such understanding he is unable to participate intelligently in the development of public opinion for the improvement of the teaching profession.

PURPOSE OF THE BOOK

From the discussions of this chapter it should be apparent that many administrative demands are made on the teacher. It is the general purpose of this book to provide a comprehensive, functional treatment of these demands. In Part I the major administrative responsibilities of the teacher are considered; in Part II the important administrative relations of the teacher are treated; and in Part III the administrative problems of vital concern to the teacher are critically discussed.

In meeting the demands for the types of service required of the present-day teacher, the older literature on the duties of the teacher and the heritage of traditions of the profession are inadequate. The social order to which pupils of the present generation must adjust themselves and the social order for which

teachers must prepare their pupils are undergoing rapid change. A new profession of teaching with a broad conception of the responsibilities of the teacher and of the relation of the school to child behavior is required in the world today.

The specific purpose of the book is to aid the teacher in acquiring a true perspective of his administrative responsibilities. The intent is not to provide recipes or formulae for the performance of specific activities but rather to supply a comprehensive body of knowledge that will contribute to the teacher's administrative insight.

When it is possible, generalizations are presented for critical consideration. From the discussions presented, it is hoped that the prospective teacher will receive the insight required to understand many of the problem situations which are sure to arise from day to day and that he will be prepared in advance of the necessity for meeting these situations intelligently. It is further hoped that the experienced teacher will secure from the discussions new views which will enable him to meet responsibilities that are often obscured because of the lack of adequate instruction and the uncertain values of personal experience.

Several carefully selected references are listed at the close of each chapter for those who may desire to pursue more extensively the topics discussed. When the book is used as a text for courses on *School Management* or *A General Introduction to Educational Administration*, the references may be assigned to different members of the class for group discussion. A brief evaluation of each reference is given for the personal guidance of the individual reader.

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CHAPTER II

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR GUIDANCE OF PUPILS

THE modern school is required to accept responsibilities with respect to pupils which the school of a generation ago was not expected to assume. These new responsibilities are the direct result of the growing complexity of community life. The rapid growth of cities and the development of schools with large enrollments have greatly increased the number and difficulty of problems which must be solved by teachers and administrative officers. Even in rural communities the problems of schools have increased. One responsibility which rests equally on urban and rural schools is that of preventing accidents. The hazards of travel to and from school have been multiplied many times by power-driven vehicles which use the city streets and country roads for rapid transportation. Another responsibility is that of overcoming the dangers to pupils of physical injury and contagious diseases. These dangers have increased as the number of pupils in schools has increased and as the accommodations of school buildings have been taxed beyond the capacity originally planned.

The changes indicated have complicated the managerial problems of the modern school to such an extent that the teacher must be prepared to meet situations which did not exist in times past. No longer can any teacher pattern his activities after the practices of teachers in the past.

HOW THE YOUNG WERE EDUCATED BEFORE THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SCHOOL

Some people think it unnecessary for the schools to adopt new patterns of operation because of the growing complexities of modern life. The conservatism of human nature is such that parents and adults who received their education half a generation ago are disposed to believe that schooling of the kind which they received is entirely adequate for the new generation. It is important therefore that one should go back to the most primitive forms of education to realize fully what modern education means. The elaborate modern system of training pupils for adult life and the simple practices which were adequate to an early stage of human social organization offer an illuminating contrast.

Even today in simple uncivilized societies youth get their preparation for life through incidental instruction from elders. The young person thus trained without the help of professional teachers is, however, required to undergo severe tests before being admitted to the responsibilities of adult life. By fourteen or fifteen years of age he generally attains sufficient skills and understanding of the customs of the tribe to be regarded as an adult. The admission to adult society is an occasion for tests of many kinds. If these are successfully met by the youth, he is formally inducted with a group celebration into his new status.

One writer who has studied primitive life as it exists in southeastern Australia describes the ceremonies by which boys are admitted to adulthood as divided into four stages.

The first stage is characterized as a public separation of the boy from childish habits and associations. He at this time gives up his mother, ceases to have any contacts with other women and children of the tribe, and puts away completely all childish things. He goes to the men's house to live and his associations during this stage are exclusively with men. Here, his instructions are largely informal and are acquired through listening and observing.

In the second stage, the youth receives from his elders much direct instruction by word of mouth regarding tribal legends, laws, and customs. The instruction is given largely through dramatic presentations and pantomimes which are staged by the elders to depict important aspects of the social life of the tribe, to impress the youth with the importance of strict obedience to tribal customs, and to develop respect for the power and wisdom of the old men. Under the guidance of his sponsors the novitiate is instructed in his new duties as a man and in the principles of conduct which should control his behavior in the future. The most important of the duties and principles prescribed for boys are:

to listen to and obey the old men, that is, a respect for constituted authority and for the law; to share everything they have with their friends and to protect the needy, that is, a spirit of community co-operation; to live peaceably; not to interfere with women and girls, that is, to observe the rules of morality and propriety; to obey the food restrictions until released from them, that is, to exercise the necessary self-restraint in refraining from doing those things which are contrary to the spirit of the law as well as to the letter of it.¹

The third stage in the induction ceremony is the demonstration by the youth, through a series of tests, that he possesses the skills, understandings, and qualities desired in a member of the tribe. For example, in order to test the self-control of the youth, the elders of certain tribes resort to the "tooth-knocking ceremony."

The boy is blindfolded and startled by unearthly noises which he has never before heard. The ceremony also tests the boy's power of endurance, since the tooth is knocked out by a wooden cudgel and is a very painful process. While the operation is in progress, with his legs in two holes dug in the ground for the purpose, held firmly by men and unable to see what is happening, the novice must give no sign of a consciousness of pain or of what is being done to him, hearing all the while the weird swish of the bull-roarer and the cries of the

¹ Elizabeth Anne Weber, *The Duk-Duks: Primitive and Historic Types of Citizenship*, pp. 17-18. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

dancing men about him. The tooth-knocking ceremony is one of the most important of the cycle, because the tooth passes as a visible indication of the attainment of manhood by the youth.¹

The fourth and final stage in the youth's initiation consists of a probationary period of undetermined length during which his conduct is carefully scrutinized by the tribal elders. He is required to demonstrate his ability to survive under conditions of imposed food restrictions and scanty equipment. He may be sent into the bush as a hunter to find his own living, often for several months, and, under the prohibitions as to certain food animals which are imposed upon him, he is practically placed in a state of privation, while being possibly surrounded by plentiful but forbidden food.² When the elders decide that the youth possesses the characteristics of a good tribesman he is permitted to return to the tribal community, although the privilege of marriage may still be withheld for a considerable time — probably to a period near the end of puberal development.

Most of the tribes that observe initiatory rites for boys also have similar ceremonies which the women conduct for the girls. For the girl the purpose is proper training in the home arts and in the social customs of the women of the tribe. She also is tested for the desired qualities of self-denial, self-control, resourcefulness, and courage. All the tests and instructions are intended to prepare the girl for the responsibilities of marriage, family life, and motherhood.

The instructional phase of the primitive practices described is evidently guided by the view that each member of the tribe needs certain competencies and that these competencies can be handed on by any or all of the older members of the tribe. Education of youth is a general function of the tribe as a whole. The test of the individual to discover whether he may properly be admitted to adult status is severe because the survival of the

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 19-20.

² A. W. Howitt, *The Native Tribes of South-East Australia*, p. 639. New York: Macmillan Co., 1904.

tribe depends on the ability of each member to perform the functions that are necessary for that survival.

A special form of education which departed from the general tribal pattern began to appear when a youth was apprenticed to the medicine man or was, as the son of a chief, given more training than that which was given to his fellows. Something that can be roughly compared with the modern school originated when the training received by selected youth was differentiated from the training received by the ordinary youth. In brief, schools developed in response to the demand for education supplementary to the experiences which were acquired through contacts with tribal life. The education of girls continued to be purely informal, incidental training by parents and elders, long after the boys who were to be leaders were given formal training for their duties.

As time passed and society became increasingly complex, especially when the elaborate arts of reading, writing, and calculating with numbers came into existence, the older members of families found that they could not supply the training necessary for young people. Then it was that schools in the modern sense, institutions with professional teachers, came into existence. These schools at first limited their training to the boys of the aristocracy. Only in the last period of the history of civilized nations have they expanded so that they reach the sons and daughters of the common people.

GUIDANCE THE ORIGINAL FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL

Even the modern school does not give to youth all the education they receive. The school merely supplements in certain special lines the training which continues to be given by elders through example and to be assumed by youth through imitation. The school is often criticized for not providing this or that form of instruction. It should not be forgotten that the modern school giving education to ordinary youth is one of the youngest

of the social institutions for the care of youth. Its functions have been from the first secondary to the functions of the home and of the institutions which train rulers.

The laws about the education of youth even in so late a system of social organization as that of the Massachusetts Colony at first merely prescribed what parents were required to do. Parents were charged under the supervision of the magistrates to teach their children to read the scriptures and the "capital laws" and to give them instruction in some useful occupation. When it became evident that many parents did not have the skill and the patience to teach reading, the laws of the Colony required communities to organize schools. These schools merely relieved the parents of a part of their duty. The schools did not train youth in occupations. Parents continued to perform this function. If they could not train in a trade they "bound out" their child to an artisan who took the child as an apprentice. The school was a very highly specialized institution. Its contribution to the socialization of the young was only a small part of the total influence brought to bear on them. Family life, the example of elders, and the church also provided educative experiences.

The domestic and incidental influences which contribute to the education of young people in a highly mechanized age such as the present are less effective than they were in colonial times. It has become necessary therefore to institutionalize phases of education which in earlier times could safely be left to the home and to incidental experience.

There is a very useful word which has come into widespread use in recent years to describe a function of the school which the necessities of modern life have imposed upon it. That word is guidance.

The pressure on the school to assume guidance responsibility for youth came first from occupational groups. It was recognized that youth appeared to suffer the greatest maladjustment in fitting into the industrial world. Maladjustment was costly to business and industry as well as to youth and society in general.

The school was urged to provide occupational information and training in vocational skills, to offer guidance with respect to vocational choice, to assist in securing placement, and to render follow-up services after employment as a means of facilitating the adjustment of youth to occupational pursuits.

The successful adjustment of the youth to adult life was soon found to require something more fundamental than the services implied in vocational guidance. Educational guidance, that is, guidance in all the phases of intelligent living, must precede and condition vocational guidance. In brief, the guidance function was found to be so intimately related with education that guidance and education have come to be regarded in a broad sense as synonymous terms.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TEACHER FOR GUIDANCE

In the foregoing sections it has been pointed out that the school of the past began in a limited way and only gradually took on the character of a comprehensive social agency dealing with all the needs of the child. The teacher of today cannot be content to be a mere craftsman concerned chiefly or only with lesson plans and methods of teaching. The competent teacher must give guidance for the whole life of the pupils.

The guidance function of the school must be adjusted to the instructional program which deals with the ordinary subject matter that has been traditionally taught. In other words there should not be less arithmetic or English but there should be more attention given to the consideration of such problems as the particular interests and capacities of the individual pupil and his opportunities for employment and success in later life may require. The school must expand so as to deal sympathetically with all the needs of the pupils. The school becomes in an important sense a clearing house of the experiences which contribute to the individual's development.

The teacher as the director of the "clearing house of experi-

ences" must familiarize himself with the kind of experiences brought to the child through all the forces with which he comes in contact. To attempt to guide the development of the pupil without an intimate knowledge of his background and the sum total of his experiences is to attempt the impossible. Obviously, then, the teacher in the modern school must acquire a broad understanding of many outside conditions as well as of those within the school. He must also understand human nature. This understanding will enable him to assume the responsibility for leadership in bringing to a focus all the influences and forces that contribute to the individual's education.

Understanding the family

The education of the child begins in the family and is largely under the control of the family until contact is made with the nursery school, kindergarten, or first primary grade. Whether this period of family control is four, five, or six years, it will result in the acquisition of a background of social experiences and the adoption of many of the attitudes, feelings, and ways of thinking of the family group. This background of experience is the social capital with which the teacher must begin his work. Whether the capital is regarded as a liability or as an asset, it will be a factor of much importance throughout the period of the school's relation with the child.

Changes in the general character of family life produced by modern conditions have been emphasized in all recent sociologies. Whatever the deficiencies in the provisions made by the family for the training of children the school must undertake to correct the defects in the family training as far as circumstances permit. Where the conditions of home life have deprived the child, as they have in most urban communities, of the rich experiences of sharing with parents in occupational tasks, which was common in earlier times, the school must supply compensatory experiences, such as constructive activities, experiences in social co-operation, and training in the discharge of individual responsibility.

ities. The change in the character of family life imposes large duties of guidance on teachers.

The new tasks of the school just enumerated do not mean that the teacher today must assume that the school supplants the home entirely. Because the home of the child is less likely now to provide the experiences which are adequate to prepare for life than was the home of an earlier period when society was simple, it would be a mistake to conclude that parents have abdicated all responsibility. The responsibilities of both home and school have simply undergone change and parents and teachers must adapt themselves to the change. The situation calls for a clear understanding of conditions and a new and more intimate type of co-operation. Teachers must strive to help parents to understand the changes which have taken place in the social order. A full acceptance of the duties of guidance compels the educational system to undertake the training of parents with respect to the demands which society makes on all of the agencies that act on pupils.

The sociologists have emphasized in their writings the especially acute need of guidance of children and parents in the homes of the foreigners who come to America and find social conditions wholly different from those which existed in the countries from which they came. Dealing with the special problems of Polish emigrants Thomas and Znaniecki write as follows:¹

A well furnished and cleanly kept house — a point on which much stress is now being laid by American social agencies — shows a certain economic stability and an interest of the woman in housekeeping but does not permit us to conclude that vital moral traditions or active educatory interests are present in the parents, nor even that strong bonds unite the marriage-group. Even the preservation of active solidarity between husband and wife does not necessarily argue in favor of their ability or willingness to educate their children. Assumptions of this kind are based upon the mistaken idea that the family (by which always the marriage-group is here meant) is by its

¹ William L. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*, II, 1792-99. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1927 (second edition).

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR GUIDANCE OF PUPILS

very existence a constructive social agency and bound to have a positive educatory influence if only the parents are not completely demoralized and do not actually teach the children evil ways. In fact, the marriage-group organization is a good instrument for imparting to the young generation schemes of behavior with the help of which their life-organization can be built; but this instrument is worthless unless properly used, *i.e.*, unless the parents have a well ordered set of schemes of behavior to impart and know how to do it. And these are precisely the weak points in an average immigrant family.

We must realize that in Polish peasant life the educatory role of the marriage-group was something entirely different, much richer in content and better organized than it is here. The marriage-group was an integral part of the wider social milieu and shared its stock of traditions and schemes of behavior. The children were early made to participate in all the activities of the parents — economic, hedonistic, social, religious — and thus unreflectively absorbed and imitated their entire life-organization. Further, the parents gradually, without effort or reflection, introduced the children into the accumulated body of traditions of the community and into the present active life of the latter and thus prepared them to supplement later from the principles and examples offered by the community whatever deficiencies there might have been in their early education. The parents did not need to be expert educators nor even to be conscious of their moral standards and planfully follow an educational system. All they had to do was to act themselves in accordance with the morality of their social milieu and to mediate between the traditions and social opinion of the community and the consciousness of their children.

All this is radically changed in America. The children no longer take part in the activities of their parents. They go to school or run the streets while the parents work, or play in their own separate milieu. There is still some community of interests and occupation left between the girl and her mother but the boy has very little in common with his father. Education by action is no longer possible. And even if the boy had any opportunities of participating in his father's activities he would not gain much by it for these activities have little social meaning left in them — unless, of course, the father is one of the active builders of the Polish-American social system. Furthermore, the marriage-group is no longer the medium through which the child is introduced into the social life of his wider milieu. On the contrary, not only are his contacts with this milieu for the most part direct and independent of the selective control of his elders, but he is often called

to mediate between his parents and American institutions whose real meaning he may not understand any better than they, but with which he has a better superficial acquaintance. Any authority which the parents might claim as bearers of the social traditions of the wider milieu is thus definitely undermined.

Under these circumstances the immigrant's home could acquire an educatory influence only if the older generation were trained in moral ideals, if their intellectual horizon were widened, if they were taught how to follow a system of rational education and were willing to do it.

Understanding community institutions

The extent to which a child is influenced by institutions in the community other than the school should be a matter of study and careful investigation by teacher and principal. In small communities the school can easily ascertain and appraise the community influences that operate in the out-of-school life of the child. The school can even modify these influences in many instances so that they supplement or complement the services which it renders. In the large community the task is far more complex. The load of the teacher is greater and the community influences are often subtle and certainly numerous. Even though teachers and administrators of the local school may organize to understand and to influence the institutional life of the community in its relation with the child, the administration of the school system is often compelled to supply additional staff services to assist in counteracting unfavorable community influences or in securing the co-operative support of the home and other institutional agencies. Visiting teachers are appointed in better organized school systems to study the community relations of pupils and to assist in keeping the school and the home in accord; attendance officers are employed to prevent unnecessary absences; nurses and physicians are hired to safeguard the health of pupils; and psychologists and psychiatrists are engaged to assist in effecting adjustments between outside influences and the school. These supplementary school officers assist the teachers but cannot be relied on to take over the responsibilities for guidance.

Furthermore, without knowledge of the relations of pupils with community institutions, such as the church, library, museum, playgrounds, motion-picture theatres, civic organizations, business enterprises, philanthropic societies, and the like, the task of the teacher in guiding pupils is rendered difficult. The individual child is a product of all the forces that have influenced his development since he became a conscious being. To attempt to change his character through the influence of the school without taking into consideration the effects of influences outside the school is to operate blindly.

Co-operation with professional workers

The teacher is only one of a number of professional workers in the school system who exercises a guiding influence on the child. The principal as head of a local school must account to the parent for the progress of the child under the teacher to whom the child is assigned. The teacher should therefore consult the principal in the guidance of the child just as the principal will no doubt consult the teacher.

Since the materials of instruction are usually provided in whole or in part by the central office of the school system, sometimes by the educational authorities of the state, and the teacher is required to use the materials furnished, his responsibility for the interplay between the instructional materials and the child is divided. Here, again, the teacher's relation is primarily with the principal, who is expected to give unity to education through the interpretation of instructional materials and the integration of the work of the different teachers.

In town and city school systems a superintendent is usually employed to give professional advice to the board of education and to serve as the executive officer of the board in providing professional leadership to the principals and teachers. Occasionally, the superintendent may speak or write directly to the members of his staff stating the policies of the school system, giving his interpretation of the materials and methods of instruction,

and outlining principles and procedures to be observed in the management of the schools. The general practice of superintendents, however, is to deal with the school principals and to hold the principals responsible for dealing with the teachers.

Schools organized either in departmental units or according to the platoon plan¹ may provide a special teacher to assume major guidance functions for a pupil instead of expecting of all teachers the more general oversight of all pupils. Even in schools which have special guidance departments full co-operation among teachers is highly important, if the pupil is to benefit from his contacts with different teaching and administrative personalities. It is therefore apparent that the relations of each teacher with other teachers and with administrative officers must be clearly understood and fully appreciated, if the guidance function of the school is to be successfully realized.

One of the leading school systems of the country, recognizing the dependence of the individual teacher on the superintendent's office for the course of study and for many of the regulations that govern the life of pupils, has taken the position that it is the duty of the central administration to send a supervisor from the superintendent's office to help any teacher who finds difficulties in fitting the course of study and school regulations to the needs of the pupils. In this way the school system recognizes that the relation between the teachers and the superintendent is a two-way relation. Not only must teachers co-operate with the superintendent, but also the superintendent must be of assistance to the teachers.

¹ Under the platoon plan the pupils of a school are divided into two groups which are alternated once or twice a day for different types of instruction. For example, one group or platoon may use the classrooms for instruction in the regular or core subjects for either a fourth or a half day while the other platoon receives instruction at the same time in special subjects or areas, such as music, art, science, dramatics, and physical education, or engages in recreational reading, auditorium activities, and play. The plan is intended to insure both a broader program of education and a greater utilization of plant facilities.

Problems of teacher complicated by mass education

If the teacher had only a single pupil to guide, the pupil could easily be studied as an individual and service could be rendered on the basis of personal needs. Such a situation would be comparatively simple. But the teacher has many pupils, not infrequently as many as forty to fifty per class. The necessity of instructing pupils in large classes is frequently regarded by teachers as a hardship and is believed to be responsible for decreasing the effectiveness of guidance. While the belief is not supported by the evidence accumulated from the studies of teacher load, the fact that guidance depends on the proper understanding of the individual necessarily places a limit on the number of pupils who can be served by a single teacher.

In elementary schools the limit of pupil load varies greatly in different schools. Private schools that can collect substantial tuition fees from parents make much of the fact that the pupil load of the teachers is small. Public schools, especially in large cities in which the pupil load is usually high, frankly recognize the problem and seek to meet any difficulties that arise from mass education by grouping in classes pupils who appear to need the same treatment. In secondary schools the number of pupils assigned to a teacher has been made a standard in school accrediting, classes of more than thirty and a total daily pupil load of over 150 being recognized as generally undesirable.

The limited financial support which communities are able to give to public schools is the determining condition which makes it necessary to have large classes. When schools are crowded, teachers and principals have no choice but to group pupils in large numbers. There is a disposition at times on the part of parents to be critical of school systems because of the large size of classes. The answer to any criticisms of parents is, of course, that the school system can hire only a limited number of teachers. Additional financial support is necessary if classes are to be small. The superintendent of schools in the city of St. Louis once estimated that a reduction by one pupil in the average class of the schools of that city would cost \$60,000 per year.

The schools of earlier times were ungraded; that is, each pupil progressed according to his individual achievements. Moreover, the progress of the pupil in the different subjects was not always at the same rate. Where the ungraded school was small the teacher had little difficulty in keeping the needs of each child in mind and in shifting the child from group to group in any particular subject. As soon as the ungraded school became large it was necessary to group pupils somewhat more permanently and to relieve the teacher of the wide range of instructional duties which the ungraded type of organization imposed.

The kind of grouping which was common in the small one-teacher school had grave disadvantages. A pupil often forged ahead in a subject which he liked and failed to make progress in subjects which he disliked. The graded system which came into being in American schools in the middle of the last century provides not single subjects but an organized group of subjects to be studied by pupils at certain stages in their development. The graded system recognizes for example that there is a certain section of reading which belongs with a certain section of arithmetic. The duty of the teacher in a graded school is so far as possible to keep all members of the class moving through all subjects at the same rate. To gain uniformity in the progress of many pupils very often requires special attention to certain individuals. For the pupils who are bright and quick the teacher must provide additional work. For the pupils who are slow the teacher must prepare special remedial exercises. In short, the program of instruction must be fitted to individual needs.

To facilitate the administration of instruction and guidance various types of pupil grouping are employed, usually in terms of yearly progress, as Grade IB, IIIA, IX, and the like. While the number of individuals in a class may be small or so large as to be disconcerting, the teacher must always have in mind that the school must do more than merely give instruction. It is true that instructional materials must be obtained, lessons assigned, study required, learning tested, and results evaluated by the

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acher. It is a deplorable fact that in many cases the teacher may carry on routine processes of mere instruction for a day, week, month, semester, or year without determining the characteristics of the individuals who compose the class as subjects for guidance. Education to a teacher who merely conducts classes is a mechanical process. At the end of the semester or year, he gives final examinations, applies standards, and rates the individuals of the class. On the basis of the ratings, reclassification may take place and new groups may be formed. The new semester or year begins for the routine teacher with his introduction to a new group of pupils who are in turn thought of merely as so many units. Such a procedure is formal and wholly inadequate.

The teacher who is willing to go through the routine just described lacks a proper understanding of the "class" concept. Instead of viewing the class as a collection of individuals for mass instruction, the teacher should regard them as a group of personalities in need of development and guidance. The first duty of the teacher, then, is to identify and to get acquainted with the different personalities composing the class. Each personality bears a name which signifies his relation to some family group. The names should be learned by the teacher and the background of information connected with each name should be acquired as quickly as possible. The history of each class member should be ascertained and his status as a subject for guidance determined.

The problem of the teacher from his first contact with a class is to think in terms of the individual members. Experiences are planned for the class, but the concern of the teacher should always be the responses of the individual members. The teacher thus becomes the adviser of the class with responsibility for guiding the development of each member through wisely planned experiences as a result of which each individual may discover and consciously develop his personal characteristics.

Guidance activities of the teacher

In a sense every effort of the teacher to aid a pupil either individually or as a member of a class may be regarded as guidance. Whether or not the effort actually results in guidance depends largely on the teacher's conception of his functions. Many teachers are still too poorly trained to assume guidance responsibility. They can police a classroom, assign lessons in textbooks, command pupils to study, attend to the details of school business, and finally evaluate the progress of their pupils, but such activities fall far short of the services implied in the guidance function. Perhaps the present percentage of individuals who are competent as guidance functionaries is much smaller than the leaders in education would care to admit. But regardless of the low percentage of individuals who are competent, the fact remains that the guidance services expected of teachers by present-day society are more complex than in any period since the establishment of the school.

Diagnosis

There are perfectly definite steps which can be taken by the teacher who undertakes a program of guidance. The first step is diagnosis. Diagnosis is the process of collecting, analyzing, and evaluating educational and personal facts about a pupil for the purpose of determining their bearing on his future treatment. Successful diagnosis requires the making of appraisals of pupil progress. When the pupil is making good progress the teacher should aim to continue the treatment which has produced good results. When the pupil is having difficulty the teacher should aim to understand the conditions which lead to maladjustment and failure, and should trace the symptoms to their causes.

In the diagnostic study of a problem pupil the first prerequisite is an accurate appraisal of the individual's educational status. If nothing has been done previously to ascertain the status of the pupil as a subject for education, a real educational emergency exists. If, on the other hand, the determination of educational

status is made a part of the admission procedure, the diagnostician has a known point of beginning in his study of particular cases

It is not always possible to obtain a full case history of a pupil at the time of admission to school, but an effort should be made to assemble all personal and educational information available. Parents may be asked to answer orally or in writing questions pertaining to physical growth, health history, family history, and the developmental history of their children in school. They should not consider the questions impertinent when they realize that the school requires full knowledge of the pupil in order to render to him its greatest service. If the data are required as a matter of admission procedure, the school is enabled thereby to know its pupils better from the beginning.

Classification

The second step which can be taken by the teacher undertaking a program of guidance is the classification or grouping of individuals in such a way that the indications of needs revealed by diagnosis shall be followed. In some schools there is no evident distinction between guidance functions and the general process of education. No special responsibility is assumed for proper classification, rating, and promotion of the pupils from one class or grade to another. They are advanced in a formal way from grade to grade merely on the basis of standing in subject matter. Whether under such conditions the pupils secure aid of a specific character in effecting adjustments is largely a matter of chance. In other schools the guidance activities, especially for older pupils, are semi-general. Programs of counseling are developed in accordance with certain patterns, such as class opportunities to secure information regarding future educational offerings, class instruction in social duties and obligations, and group discussion of problems to be encountered by pupils in future adjustments to social life. In still other schools provisions are made for individual pupils, such as guidance in the formation of efficient

habits of study, the cultivation of intellectual interests, the development of special talents, the overcoming of special disabilities, the formation of right civic attitudes, the establishment of correct health habits, and the development of worthy habits of using leisure time.

After diagnosis and classification, and in place of mere general advice such as is given in schools which do not have a systematic guidance program, three guidance services may be undertaken. These are informative services, advisory services, and adjustive services. They may be regarded as additional steps in a guidance program.

Informative services

The earliest efforts to provide information for students were along occupational lines. Courses in occupations were organized in some schools and were taught by vocational counselors. In Cincinnati, for example, the course consisted of ten lessons for pupils of the eighth and ninth grades. These courses in occupations have developed in two directions in more recent years, namely, into separate courses containing both general and occupational information offered usually in Grades VII and VIII and into units of instruction in regular courses in civics, economic geography, and economics, generally offered in Grade IX. The objectives of the courses dealing specifically with occupations are (1) to acquaint the pupils with the ways in which people earn a living, (2) to prepare them for a better understanding of occupational problems, and (3) to furnish them a background of occupational information needed in making a wise choice of a vocation.

The units of instruction in the regular courses have developed beyond the point where they give only occupational information. They now include general information on many types of social relations. The purposes of the courses giving general information are much the same as those of the occupational courses. The objectives of the general units are (1) to acquaint pupils

with the purpose and value of the school, (2) to provide them with a basis for selecting their school subjects in line with future social and vocational needs, and (3) to furnish them information regarding their duties and obligations in school and community.

Courses and units of instruction such as those described in the foregoing paragraphs are justified in modern schools on the ground that information is required by a pupil in discovering his relations to the activities of school and community life. A certain amount of this information is undoubtedly acquired incidentally and casually from listening to parents, older brothers and sisters, playmates, neighbors, the school principal, and teachers; from reading; from listening to radio broadcasts; from attending the movies; and from observing the activities of contemporary life. Whether the information is clearly understood or rightly interpreted by an individual is an important educational question. Because of the uncertainty about adequate interpretation of incidental experiences, the modern school must undertake to systematize essential information and to provide opportunities for its acquisition by the pupils. Accordingly, text material dealing with the problems of contemporary life; printed or mimeographed explanations pertaining to the local program of studies; handbooks describing school customs, activities, and opportunities, and providing information on innumerable matters relating to life in the local school; student publications reporting school news; circulars from the principal's office making announcements and giving instructions; and special booklets for orientation purposes are made available by many schools and are placed before the pupil who is willing to read statements designed to make him an intelligent citizen.

Schools will undoubtedly differ greatly both in the amount of explicit information made available for the pupil and in the extent to which they undertake to help him to acquire understanding of the information provided. Some schools have been successful in organizing class groups under the guidance of home-room teachers wherein the pupil's understanding is checked

through discussion and in some instances through examinations and tests. In addition, the pupil should be invited to consult his principal, home-room teacher, activity sponsor, or any other person when in doubt as to the correctness or the interpretation of important information.

Thus, through the medium of explicit information the pupil is guided in his search for solutions to his problems. Although the orientation of the pupil to school and community life is necessarily a process which must be achieved by the pupil himself, it is generally recognized that successful orientation can be greatly facilitated when the school makes available to the pupil information of the kinds enumerated.

The preparation of general information is largely the responsibility of the school principal and teachers, although older pupils may be utilized with great profit to themselves and with good effect on their younger beneficiaries. The preparation of information involving extended research is in some cases assigned by school systems to specialists in health, social activities, and out-of-school activities such as recreation.

There is now much informational material distributed through regular subject-matter courses which could be assembled into courses of the type here advocated.

Recent data collected from a selected group of 68 widely scattered schools show that information valuable as guidance material is provided for pupils through general courses in the seventh, eighth, or ninth grades. These courses are intended to acquaint the pupils with the major areas of instruction offered in secondary schools. For example, the course in general science introduces the pupil to the problems of both the physical and biological sciences. Units of instruction are provided which enable him to test his interests in physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology, botany, zoology, and physiology. The teacher is also able to evaluate the responses of the pupils to the different units and to provide additional information with respect to the more specialized courses of science at advanced levels and the opportunities which such courses provide for vocational careers.

More direct instruction of the guidance type is found in the 68 schools studied as follows: (1) Courses in occupations are offered, chiefly at eighth- or ninth-grade levels, by 29 schools. (2) Information relative to occupations is provided as part of the regular work in social studies by 28 schools, and through units of instruction in other subjects by a smaller number of schools. (3) General information is provided through (a) printed or mimeographed descriptions of the program of studies, by 66 schools; (b) student handbooks, by 45 schools; (c) special bulletins describing the educational and vocational opportunities, by 47 schools; (d) verbal information provided for entering pupils with respect to subject offerings, by 61 schools; (e) bulletins describing extracurriculum activities, by 33 schools; (f) information furnished each pupil regarding his native ability, by 50 schools; (g) lists of books for informational reading on selected occupations, by 47 schools; (h) tabular information on admission requirements of colleges, by 47 schools; (i) information regarding the success of local graduates in colleges, by 44 schools; (j) a special issue of the school newspaper devoted to guidance, by 9 schools.¹

Guidance for many pupils need not go beyond the mere supplying of information. Others apparently fail to benefit from information which is merely supplied to them. They are unable to interpret it without assistance, and they cannot make application of informative knowledge without counsel and advice. Some of them may become badly maladjusted both in school and in community, if neglected, and may finally require skillful advisement before successful orientation takes place.

Advisory services

Advisement, the fourth step in guidance service, consists in directing the pupil in the processes of self-discovery. It is more than making decisions for the pupil and proffering advice which he may accept or reject. It is a process through which the at-

¹ W. C. Reavis, unpublished study, May, 1938.

tention of the pupil is stimulated so that he will see the importance of considering problems, issues, alternatives, and relationships with respect to matters of concern to himself and to the social order of which he is part. Such advisement is held by Brewer¹ to be a sound compromise between freedom and compulsion. The pupil is encouraged to look over possibilities, to survey the pros and cons of various alternatives in the light of his own and others' experiences, and to understand why one line of action is to be preferred to another. Advisement provides the pupil with the basis of intelligent action without depriving him of the right of choosing the line of action which he will follow. For example, a high-school pupil may think that he would like to study medicine and become a physician. He knows certain physicians whom he greatly admires. He is interested in both the nature of the services rendered by physicians and the remunerative rewards which the highly successful physicians are reported to receive. He lacks information regarding the requirements exacted of persons who seek admission to medical schools and he has never compared his own abilities and characteristics with these requirements. All this he communicates to the counselor from whom he seeks advice. The pertinent facts bearing on the profession of medicine are provided by the counselor and the pupil is stimulated to take stock of his ability to meet the requirements which medicine exacts. The decision with respect to his future action is made by the pupil. The counselor's responsibility is to see that the pupil considers fairly all the important facts.

Successful advisement requires of the adviser understanding of the pupil who seeks guidance. If complete understanding of individual interests and needs were in the possession of teachers the process of advisement would be relatively simple. Since such understanding is not readily acquired it is sometimes well to ask the pupil to describe his interests through a questionnaire or through a letter describing his educational and occupational plans.

¹ John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance*, p. 23. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.

Some pupils apparently are unable to make a satisfactory response to advisement, however skillful it may be. They suffer from physical disabilities, mental disorganization, or emotional difficulties which prevent them from profiting from advisement. Sometimes they are so maladjusted that they cannot make rational decisions. When such cases are encountered the teacher must recognize that a different kind of service is needed and an effort must be made to take the fifth step in guidance, namely, adjustment.

Adjustive services

Adjustment is a special form of guidance which seeks to effect changes in the pupil. It may be that the pupil himself can make the changes required to effect adjustment but such is not often the case. In most instances certain changes in the individual or his environment must be made for him. Often adjustment is too technical a process to be successfully carried out by school principals and teachers. The services of persons with special training, such as physicians, psychologists, and psychiatrists, are required.

Successful adjustment involves two processes: discovery of the causes of difficulties and corrective or remedial treatment. Discovery of causes involves the collection, analysis, interpretation, and evaluation of the conditions which have acted upon the individual to bring about the abnormal condition. When the cause or causes of the present condition have been ascertained, the treatment then consists in making the changes which are required to restore the individual to as nearly normal status as possible. For example, a pupil may be maladjusted in school because of an optical disability which results in serious impairment of vision. Reading and concentration in study are to this pupil painful or impossible undertakings. The disability has caused the pupil to neglect reading and to avoid study. He therefore has failed to keep pace in school with his friends. Embarrassment because of his failure and his inability to secure satisfaction from experi-

ences in school has tended to make the pupil rebellious in his attitude toward school. Through the friendly interest of principal and teacher a physician may be consulted and the disability removed by a surgical operation. The change effected in the pupil's vision starts him on the road to normalcy in school work and to ultimate adjustment. While principal and teacher may have contributed much to the adjustment of the pupil, the primary cause was removed by the physician. Until the cause was discovered and remedied, successful adjustment was impossible.

A physical defect of the eyes is comparatively simple in contrast with the far-reaching psychical defects which are sometimes discovered in pupils. A writer on the applications of psychiatry to high-school problems summarized a discussion of cases as follows:

Our psychiatric study of high-school girls has had certain definite results from the point of view of therapy and education. Problem girls have been helped to make better adjustment, because individual examinations have brought to light such important and often remediable conditions as the following:

- (a) Difficult home, family or personal situations.
- (b) Unsuitable courses in school, resulting in lack of interest, sense of failure, and so forth.
- (c) Sensory, speech, and postural defects, malnutrition, glandular imbalance.
- (d) Morbid emotional states and difficult personality traits.
- (e) Psychoneurotic conditions, mental inferiority, or psychosis.

Measures that have been utilized to bring about better adjustments are:

- (a) Interpretation of the girl and her behavior to herself, her family, and her teachers.
- (b) Modification or radical change of courses to suit individual need, as a result of which disastrous over-reaching of ability has been averted or stopped. Tutoring in difficult subjects has been done in some cases.
- (c) Provision of needed medical and surgical care through appropriate clinics.
- (d) Provision of lunches by the school in cases of malnutrition.
- (e) Provision for recreation or participation in group activities.

(f) Attention to such needs as arise from shyness, discouragement, self-consciousness, a sense of inferiority, and other difficult personality traits.

(g) Scholarships for certain students to enable them to concentrate on school work instead of struggling to combine study and part-time work.¹

It may be said, and in some cases with truth, that many of these forms of treatment might have been used without the advice of a psychiatrist, but it is equally true that often treatment applied by the schools is not efficacious because the root of the difficulty is not reached and cannot be without the aid of one familiar with the manifestations of nervous and mental sickness.

From the discussion to this point it should be apparent that adjustment as a guidance service presents more complicated problems than do the services of providing information or giving advisement.

GUIDANCE REQUIREMENTS OF TEACHERS

The successful execution of the guidance function depends upon the ability of the teacher to secure the confidence of the individual to be counseled. It is a well-known fact in personnel relations that an individual tends to reveal himself more fully and freely to a person whose friendship is unquestioned than to one whose friendship is a matter of doubt. This fact being true, it is obvious that the first principle in educational guidance is a genuine concern for the welfare of the pupils to be guided. Young people are quick to respond to a friend and they are equally quick in sensing insincerity on the part of an adult.

The person who would serve in a guidance capacity will secure better results through conference methods than through preaching. He must restrain the inclination to talk or to cross-examine and must develop the ability to listen and induce free expression from the person to be advised. The best results from

¹ Anne T. Bingham, "The Application of Psychiatry to High-School Problems," *Mental Hygiene*, IX (January, 1925), 24-25.

conference are obtained if a situation can be created which will cause the pupil of his own accord to seek his guidance officer for advice. Since it is not always possible to bring about conference at the request of the pupil, the teacher must seek to approximate the conditions of the voluntary conference as nearly as possible.

A further requirement of a guidance functionary is the acquisition of a broad understanding of life and a keen insight into the problems of youth. The lack of such understanding and insight is an insuperable barrier in guidance. There is a great deal of literature which describes the attitudes of young people. The teacher will do well to add to his reading some of the stories about young people. Very often these stories give a more vivid picture of the attitudes and problems of youth than do technical books on child nature.

Organization to facilitate guidance

The difficulty encountered in training an entire corps of teachers to undertake duties as highly specialized as those involved in guidance has caused many school officials to set up guidance programs around one or more persons specifically trained for guidance services. Some of these schools entrust the guidance function to a single technically trained individual usually designated as school counselor or adviser. This person is relieved of other school duties and is available at all hours of the school day to pupils in need of advisement. Pupils come to the counselor of their own accord or are sent by administrative officers or are referred by teachers or parents. Results of the conferences are reported to teachers and parents when their understanding of the pupils will thereby be facilitated.

Other schools — especially high schools and departmentalized elementary schools — designate one qualified teacher to serve each grade as counselor. These teachers are released from one or two periods of teaching daily to perform the special functions of guidance and they serve as intermediaries between the pupils and regular teachers or parents when adjustments in the interests of the pupils are required.

The assignment of the duties of guidance to particular members of the school staff may be thought of as a temporary method of meeting the modern requirements of education. Sooner or later all teachers should be drawn into some phase or all phases of the guidance program. One of the most practical administrative devices which has been developed is a plan which separates subject-matter teaching from guidance but gives to each teacher a share in guidance. This is the device of assigning to each teacher a certain number of pupils in a home room. The home-room teacher is charged with the responsibility of conference with the pupils in the room and the manifold activities of guidance. The home-room plan fails when teachers refuse to give attention to the personal problems of pupils. It has certain marked advantages, however. (1) It is a form of organization that can be developed in any type of school without the addition of specially trained officers to the staff. (2) It places the responsibility for guidance on teachers, thus bringing the pupil and his needs into the focus of their attention. (3) It can be developed without increasing school costs. (4) It places every pupil in a guidance relationship with some individual adviser.

The mere adoption of the home-room plan by a school with the expectation that it will succeed without special training of the home-room teachers is a fundamental mistake. The adoption of the plan must be followed with a definite program of training of teachers and the development of a definite program of activities for the home-room units. In other words, the plan makes a heavy demand on the administrative leadership of the school, if guidance services of value to the pupils are to be insured.

Some schools have set up guidance programs which include two or more of the plans just described. They started out in the beginning with the home-room organization, which proved to be inadequate. In an effort to improve the home-room plan chairmen were appointed for the advisers of each grade. These chairmen were charged with the duties of formulating home-room programs for the advisers of the grade to which each chairman was assigned,

and of dealing individually with pupils in any home-room group who presented problems in guidance too difficult for the home-room teachers to solve. Thus, a type of special guidance service was supplied which was not furnished under the ordinary home-room plan. However, this service still lacked the expertness in both advisement and adjustment required for problem pupils. This apparent need led to another development in the program, namely, the appointment of a specially trained director of guidance (1) to co-ordinate the work of the chairmen, (2) to provide a training program for the grade chairmen and home-room advisers, (3) to organize a record system for the accumulation of case data, and (4) to act as a specialist in dealing with cases which baffled both the home-room advisers and the grade chairmen. Obviously, this plan is more expensive than an organization which relies solely on home-room advisers, grade committeemen, or both, but it has the advantage of providing special skill for the study of individual pupils presenting problems in educational adjustment.

The modern school is compelled as a matter of economical and efficient education to provide an efficient guidance program. Support for this statement is found in the frequency with which boards of education in city school systems have enacted rules pertaining to the guidance responsibilities of teachers. Analysis of the rules of school boards in 150 cities ¹ reveals twenty different guidance responsibilities required of teachers; the frequency of mention of these responsibilities, however, is only 111, thus indicating that a considerable number of the school boards in question have either enacted no rules on the subject or have been satisfied with very few rules. Further analysis reveals that with few exceptions the activities involved in the performance of the duties specified in the rules are entirely within the ability of regular teachers.

¹ L. K. Klitzke, "Duties of Teachers in City School Systems as Specified by Board Rules and Regulations," pp. 104-06. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934.

Whatever the solution of the problem suggested in this chapter, it is clear that no school can overlook its obligation to do more for pupils than merely to conduct recitations in subjects of instruction. As it was in the beginning with reading and writing, so now it has come to be with occupations and social adjustment; incidental home and community influences are no longer adequate. The development of life habits requires expert consideration and competent guidance.

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CHAPTER III

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR SCHOOL CURRICULUM

THE term school curriculum is sometimes used to cover in a broad general way all the experiences which pupils have. When used in this sense the curriculum includes all that was discussed in the preceding chapter under guidance. It includes also the play of pupils and their incidental relations with one another. There is, however, a more common and narrow meaning of the term curriculum. It is used to distinguish the instructional material from the other phases of school experience. The subject matter which the teachers present in class exercises and the training activities which are required of pupils in art classes and classes that provide constructive activities constitute the curriculum in the narrow sense of the term.

RELATIONS OF TEACHER TO CURRICULUM

The relations of the teacher to the curriculum when the term is used in the narrow sense can be sharply divided into two types. First, teachers adopt and apply methods of teaching. In so doing they must divide the intellectual materials to be covered in a given field and the activities through which pupils are to be trained into suitable learning units. They must present the materials of these units in such a way that the experiences desired can be readily comprehended by the pupils. In thus dealing with instructional materials teachers are said to be devising and employing methods. In the second place, teachers hav

relations to the curriculum which are administrative. They must contribute more or less directly to the determination of the subjects which are to be taught. They must either passively accept the verdict of some superior authority with regard to the contents of the curriculum or they must be active in participating in its formulation. They must understand the relations of society in general to the curriculum and must deal properly with their own relations to this society. They must have judgments with respect to the ways in which society operates in determining what shall be taught in schools and must be prepared at times to undertake campaigns for the purpose of influencing the choices of society. Roughly speaking, teachers act as instructors when dealing with pupils and the curriculum; they act in administrative capacities when dealing with social forces that affect the curriculum.

It is not the purpose of this chapter or of any of the chapters in this book to deal with methods of teaching. As was stated in an earlier chapter, methods of teaching can be treated properly only in connection with the discussion of particular contents of instruction. The methods of teaching any given subject are merely ways of arranging that particular subject for ready acquisition by pupils. This chapter will deal strictly with the administration of the curriculum.

Whether the curriculum is to include many subjects or few depends on the purposes of society in maintaining schools. When, as in colonial New England, society was simple and children learned much of what they needed to prepare them for adult life through the family and ordinary occupations, the school curriculum was meager. It was limited in scope because society was satisfied to assign to the school only a very small part of the function of bringing up children. New England society was devoted to the promotion of religion. Consequently, schools were required by public opinion and by law to prepare pupils to read the scriptures. When teachers were employed their contracts were made with the definite understanding that they were to teach reading so that pupils might read the scriptures.

As society has grown increasingly complex the scope of the curriculum has expanded. Whereas the early reading school was the accepted institution of the colonies, the modern elementary school and the modern high school are now the accepted institutions to which society sends the oncoming generation to receive a very large share of the necessary preparation for later life. The relation of the teacher to society is under these new conditions much broader than it was in colonial times.

It has recently been stated by some educational writers that society is so limited in its insight into the needs of the modern world that teachers as the intellectual leaders of the nation should formulate the curriculum and should create the social order. This is a view with regard to the administrative functions of teachers which has not been accepted by society and is not likely to be accepted. At all events it can safely be asserted that if teachers are to reorganize society they cannot do so by arbitrarily setting aside the demands of society. They must persuade society; if changes are to be made in the curriculum they must first change public opinion. Teachers are part of an existing social order and must operate in an important sense as servants of society.

LEGAL BASIS OF CURRICULUM

From the beginning of public education in the American colonies down to the present time, the essential outlines of the program of studies to be taught in the schools have been prescribed by law. It is true that even though the social order has prescribed in general terms the curriculum to be taught to the pupils, much latitude has remained in the control of the teacher. The lawmakers could not embody in law the minutiae of instruction. At first much authority over what was taught in schools was delegated by legislatures to the laymen who were chosen to execute the law in the local community. These laymen were empowered to select the teacher and to exercise control over the

instruction of the pupils. Even the local lay officials were generally unable to supervise, except in a superficial manner, the use made of instructional materials by the teacher. They could not prepare the curriculum which the law authorized them to administer. They found it impossible in many cases to employ a teacher of sufficient preparation to fulfill the intent of the law. They were very often unable because of lack of financial support to keep schools open long enough each year to teach pupils what they were expected to learn.

In later times, when a choice of materials of instruction has been determined largely by textbooks, school officers have had the legal power to select the particular books that shall be used in schools. Even here, however, school officers have been limited by the fact that they do not control authors and publishers.

Tradition and public opinion exercise some influence over the materials incorporated in the texts, but in the last analysis the local community has either to take the texts as they are or do without. Furthermore, the directors cannot exercise complete control over the teacher. They can hire or dismiss a particular teacher, but they cannot be certain regarding the exact influence of the teacher on the pupils under his control at every hour in the day. The teacher is virtually free to interpret the text material selected by the committee and to supplement it verbally. By adroit questioning the teacher can also influence the pupils in their own self-instruction. Thus, we see that the forces of law and public opinion, powerful as they are, cannot fully control the instructional materials intended for the pupils. The state and its agents, the local school committees, have to trust the teacher to some extent to administer the curriculum which is prescribed by law.

School committees or boards of education have been privileged to exercise unspecified powers with respect to the curriculum from colonial times. The extent to which these officials have directly used their powers to determine the curriculum content is

not clear. Examples can be cited to show that some boards have used their powers arbitrarily and foolishly, while other boards have exercised their responsibilities with much discretion. It appears that many of these officials, prior to the establishment of the school superintendency, were content to select the teacher, or the master as they called him, and to hold him responsible for complying with the general curriculum requirements of the law. The tenure of the master was conditioned largely by his ability to satisfy the local patrons that what he taught the pupils was conventional and proper.

INFLUENCE OF TEXTBOOKS ON THE CURRICULUM

Since the teachers in the early schools were often poorly qualified, the textbook assumed a more important place in instruction than was the case in European schools where instruction was largely oral, consisting of presentations by the teacher of the subject matter to be learned. The textbook maker thus became a powerful force in the determination of the curriculum in American schools. The textbook was an indispensable instrument for the poorly qualified teacher and it provided a certain security to the community against false information. School officers could therefore protect the minds of the young entrusted to their care from receiving false ideas by the exercise of good judgment in the selection of textbooks.

The standards which controlled the content of textbooks have not always been those of scholarship; they have often been determined by what the community would accept. It is not necessary to look for cases in pioneer times to make this generalization concrete. Examples can be found in present-day communities of insistence that the contents of history texts, for example, conform to sectional prejudices.

Decline in influence of textbook

In recent times the influence of the textbook has tended to decline. The development of school libraries, the extensive publication of books designed to be used as supplementary readers, and the rapid improvement in the training of teachers have tended to reduce the influence of the textbook on the school curriculum.

Textbook writers and publishers now vie with one another in attempting to make text material responsive to the demands for more objective and universally accepted contents. However, the textbook will probably never again exert the influence on the curriculum that it did in the earlier periods of American school history when the professional standards of teachers were low as compared with the standards of teachers today. The classroom use of instructional materials was then restricted to single texts to be studied and recited by the pupils. Today, such slavish adherence to text material is rapidly becoming impossible; it is not tolerated by intelligent school patrons. The modern teacher will no doubt continue to use the textbook, but only to the extent that it furnishes instructional materials on which class discussion can be based. The curriculum will call for many books: supplementary books, general reference books, and current material in pamphlet form to be used by pupils in acquiring experience and in learning to think. Since the curriculum experiences desired for pupils in any given classroom will vary with the abilities, previous experiences, and present needs of the individual pupils concerned, it is apparent that a variety of instructional materials too great to be supplied by a single textbook is required. Obviously, then, the usefulness of a textbook will vary with the excellence of the units which it presents — a fact which possibly forecasts the ultimate publication of small textbooks containing only unit treatments, these to be employed along with additional references to collateral and supplementary materials. It is therefore clear that the influence of the modern teacher over the curriculum increases in the degree in which the control of textbooks over what is taught decreases.

The views just stated regarding the textbook as the basis of instruction are supported by a statement of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association:

The single textbook, however complete, is entirely inadequate to take care of individual differences or to meet the social needs of the time. In the natural and physical sciences, in literature, no single book is sufficiently comprehensive to give the child a basis for understanding life or our social institutions. Neither is it effective in developing the skills. It is incapable of providing for the range of interest of a single child, much less that of a group of thirty children. The single text excludes the richest and most recent thought. It can not do otherwise. The extensive use of a single text produces an intellectual and emotional standardization of the child, while extensive reading rich in experience stimulates initiative, self-expression, and independent thinking. At best, a single textbook presents but one point of view.¹ /

INFLUENCE OF LAW ON INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The legislatures in all the states have greatly influenced the materials of instruction through the enactment of laws pertaining to the school curriculum. These laws have in some instances been carefully conceived as a means of perpetuating certain ideals and of creating in the young certain feelings and attitudes considered worthy to be passed on from one generation to the next. In other instances, laws bearing on instructional materials have been enacted without adequate consideration, merely to satisfy the desires of some insistent minority group.

Legal prescription of curriculum content

The result of many legislative enactments which prescribe courses but seldom rescind earlier laws has been the accumulation in the school curriculum of numerous requirements which are out

¹ *Materials of Instruction*, p. 60. *Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

of line with the educational tendencies of the times. Once curriculum content is enacted into law, the prescription usually tends to persist for a long time without regard to changes in social and economic conditions and educational thought. Even in that part of the school system where conditions are stable, as in the elementary-school curriculum in which the fundamentals are universally recognized, state legislatures have imposed many prescriptions that can find little support either in educational theory or in contemporary practice. The criticism stated is fully supported by the findings of Fenton,¹ who, in an analysis of existing laws in the several states, found the elementary-school curriculum encumbered with legal prescriptions, the number ranging from ten in the state with the fewest to forty in the state with the greatest number of prescriptions. The median number of legal prescriptions pertaining to materials of instruction in the elementary school in the forty-eight states is 27.7. The specific nature of the legal enactments found by Fenton² is revealed in Table 4.

It is difficult to ascertain to what extent prescriptions, such as most of those specified in Table 4, have reverted to the status of Blue Laws and are now virtually ignored by administrative officers and teachers. It is a calamity that legislation with regard to the curriculum should be hastily passed and carelessly enforced. When existing laws prescribe subjects, it must be recognized that instructional requirements imposed by law on the schools are legal requirements until the law is repealed. Even ignorance of the law does not absolve the teacher for either neglecting or ignoring such legal prescriptions. This discussion makes very clear one of the administrative duties of teachers and school officers. They should persuade the public that before laws are passed expressing the demands of society with respect

¹ Frederick C. Fenton, "The Legal Basis for the Elementary School Curriculum." Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1932. Pp. 82.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 5-56.

TABLE 4. LEGAL PRESCRIPTIONS PERTAINING TO INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND THE NUMBER OF STATES HAVING SUCH LEGISLATION

Prescriptions	Number of States
Stimulants and narcotics.....	47
Physiology and hygiene.....	47
Arithmetic.....	34
English.....	34
Geography.....	34
Penmanship.....	34
Reading.....	34
Spelling.....	34
Physical education.....	31
Agriculture.....	21
Social and ethical outcomes.....	20
Humane treatment of animals.....	19
Fire prevention.....	16
Music.....	15
Importance of animals.....	14
Personal hygiene.....	12
Drawing.....	12
Bible reading.....	10
Cause and prevention of communicable diseases.....	9
Household arts.....	9
Manners and morals.....	9
Sanitation.....	8
Industrial arts.....	8
Accident prevention.....	6
Elementary science.....	6
Effect of tobacco.....	5
Thrift.....	5
Bookkeeping.....	5
Forestry and plant life.....	5
Morals.....	4
Algebra.....	3
Cotton grading.....	1
Art.....	1
Oratory.....	1
Manners.....	1
Metric system.....	1
Dictionary.....	1

to the school curriculum these laws should be subjected to the most careful deliberation. Legislatures should be shown that new subjects can be taught only when place is made for them in the school schedule. Legislatures should also realize that it re-

quires time to prepare the detailed instructional materials necessary to carry out a prescription of law. Perhaps the best way to secure a wholesale repeal of unwise laws would be for teachers to begin teaching all the subjects required by law even at the expense of curtailment of instruction in fundamentals.

Influences responsible for legal prescriptions

The accumulation of legal enactments with respect to curriculum content can be traced very commonly to the influence of minority groups which desire to perpetuate their ideals and to realize their purposes even when these purposes are not appropriate as a part of the program of public schools. A small minority may, through the use of strong pressure, secure the enactment of school legislation which does not represent the views of the majority of the people. The legislation forces the school to become an unwilling agent in carrying out the wishes of the minority group. Local school boards may refuse to observe the law in order to bring the matter before the courts. If the legislation is sustained by the courts teachers are compelled to comply with the requirements of the law so long as its enforcement is attempted by the state.

INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONS ON THE CURRICULUM

Both individuals and organizations sometimes seek to determine the work of the schools through extralegal methods, i.e., the exercise of influence on those in charge of the schools. Effort may be put forth to dictate what shall or shall not be taught by teachers. If the school officers concerned do not yield to the demands, threats may be made and reprisals may be directed toward teachers, despite the fact that the demands may have been improper and that the neglect of the demands by the school may have been fully justified.

Organizations which make demands on the schools and seek to enforce their demands through the use of strong influence are

sometimes called "pressure groups." The term is comparatively new but the organizations and their methods are well known. Groups seeking to control the schools for their own selfish purposes have increased in number within recent years. Some of these groups are without doubt friendly in their attitude toward the public schools and through their demands intend in reality to render a type of service to the schools in keeping with the purposes of their organizations. Other groups, however, are openly hostile and intend through their demands to exploit the schools for their selfish purposes.

An example of the operation of a pressure group

An examination of the list of pressure groups which are reported as seeking to influence the school curriculum shows that some of the organizations are national in scope while others are strictly local. The national groups are often powerful and seek to accomplish their purposes through state legislation. Even where the motives of the organizations which seek legislative prescription of some new curriculum contents are of the highest order, and where the subject matter which they advocate is entirely worthy of a place in the school program, the form of the law proposed may be such as to defeat the purpose which was in mind. For example, a few years ago the American Bar Association decided that it would secure legislation requiring in all states that the United States Constitution be taught as a separate subject. In many schools the Constitution is taught as a part of the course in United States history. To detach it from its historical setting is to make it sterile as a subject of instruction. Furthermore, where teachers are not prepared to teach the Constitution, instruction if attempted becomes altogether formal and worse than useless.

Hazards to teacher in resisting the demands of pressure groups

The foregoing illustration reveals the danger when organizations undertake by pressure methods to determine either the

content of the curriculum or the methods of instruction in defiance of pedagogical principles. Administrative officers and teachers, regardless of qualifications, are compelled in cases such as that cited to modify instructional procedures in conformity with prescriptions imposed through well-intentioned mistakes. The situation is made still worse when an influential national group, such as the American Bar Association, seeks the enforcement of its views through local chapters or affiliated organizations, thus giving the question at issue a local setting. The sponsors of the demands made by the group are local persons, not infrequently related to the school officials and teachers through associations in other group and community activities. Under such conditions, if school co-operation is refused, personal relations are sometimes disturbed and rifts in other group relations are created. When the demand of a local group creates conflict with some other local group with respect to the schools, serious community dissension may result.

Since the teacher is expected to be a loyal employee of the school system and at the same time a participating member of the social order, he finds himself often caught on the horns of a dilemma where a definite stand may mean professional ruin. He must either secure a change in the law or run counter to his professional judgment. The teacher who is confronted with such an issue has no choice other than to obey the law of the state, the regulations of the local board of education, and the instructions of the superintendent. The solution of such a difficulty as that under consideration consists in the assumption by teachers and school administrators of the legitimate administrative function of undertaking to inform the public through such organizations as the parent-teacher association of the true needs of the school.

Such responsibilities to the community are often neglected by teachers who think of their duties as discharged when they meet their classes and conduct recitations. The whole purpose of the discussion of this chapter is to point out the obligations of teach

ers which extend to areas of influence entirely outside the classroom.

Nonprofessional influences on the curriculum

Because teachers have not realized in times past their duties as administrators of a public interest, schools have suffered from an excess of nonprofessional control. Emphasis has been laid in earlier paragraphs on the fact that minority groups have operated on the school curriculum through state legislation. The schools of this country are in very large measure controlled by local agencies. It will be a mistake to overlook the fact that there are a great many cases in which teachers have allowed local influences to affect the curriculum without asserting as they might through proper professional channels that administrative influence which would have kept the curriculum at a high level of professional effectiveness.

Examples can be found in the annual reports of boards of education even in large cities which show that boards of education in the past have selected textbooks and revised the course of study without professional advice.¹ Some textbook commissions and state boards of education even in recent years have been reported as admitting that no definite study was made of textbooks previous to the time of adoption.²

Local customs and traditions

Local customs and traditions have prevented needed changes in instructional materials which professional forces have tried to effect. The charge is supported by an abundance of evidence found in the reports of city school systems.³ One superintendent reports that for twelve years he had attempted to introduce drawing in a moderate way, but was opposed by a lay board of

¹ Douglas E. Lawson, *Curriculum Development in City School Systems*, pp. 156-58. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

² Gertrude Whipple, *Procedures Used in Selecting School Books*, pp. 93-94. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936.

³ Lawson, *op. cit.*, pp. 176-78.

education which considered that "drawing is a fine art, an accomplishment, an educational luxury for the wealthy classes; the public schools are for the children of the poorer classes, who must work for a living."¹

Careful study of the reports over a period of a hundred years shows that city superintendents have had to struggle continuously to overcome the force of local customs and traditions in effecting improvements of the materials of instruction in the public schools. In this struggle they have frequently been without the support of the teachers who have thought of themselves as responsible only for routine teaching.

Public opinion

At times the conflict between official school policy and public opinion has been sharp. A move to incorporate new subjects as an integral part of the school curriculum has frequently encountered a strong opposing public opinion. Many examples of such opposition are found in the annual reports of city school systems. In one city the introduction of music was so strongly opposed by parents, citizens, and school directors that it was eliminated from the curriculum for a period of ten years and when reintroduced still had many pronounced enemies and many more skeptics who prophesied that it would be an utter failure.² In another city the school board voted to introduce manual training but was forced to reconsider the action at the next regular meeting because of the opposition of the local trade and labor unions.³ The evidence clearly shows that the influence of professional educators has often been weak when organized professional leadership might have been effective. A striking illustration of the strength of opposition to desirable administrative changes is found in the report in 1915 of Superintendent Ella Flagg Young of Chicago:

The greatest weakness in the American elementary school is the limitation of the course of study through eight years to the acquisition

¹ Lawson, *ibid.*, p. 176.

² *Ibid.*, p. 164.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 166.

of the tools of education. The average American citizen whose schooling was limited to the primary and grammar grades looks with reverence upon the subjects there taught, and refuses to concur in a change of the course of study for the elementary school.¹

The fact that public opinion has so frequently vigorously opposed the introduction of new subjects in the school curriculum and then later has just as vigorously resisted any proposed change in the same subject after it has become established leads one to conclude that generally speaking the public is in great need of professional guidance. The public seems to be chiefly interested in maintaining the existing curriculum.

PROFESSIONAL INFLUENCES ON INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The rapid growth of cities in the first half of the nineteenth century introduced many problems of administration of the curriculum which could not be solved by laymen, who, in the early New England states and in the newer states that followed the educational pattern of New England, had been entrusted with the organization and control of public schools. The difficulties of lay administration led to the appointment of professional administrators who were charged with the solution of the professional problems that perplexed the lay officials. One of the problems in greatest need of solution was the development of an organized curriculum for use in the graded schools. The professional administrator, the city superintendent of schools, thus from an early date was expected to contribute to the improvement of the curriculum and instructional materials.

Influence of school superintendents on instructional materials

The transition from an ungraded to a graded school system affected vitally the teacher's relation to instructional materials.

¹ *Sixty-First Annual Report of the Board of Education*, for the year ending June 30, 1915, p. 25. Chicago, Illinois, 1915.

Instead of teaching pupils of widely varying ages and levels of maturity, as had been the case in the ungraded school, the teacher in the graded system was required to adapt instructional materials to pupils of narrow age and maturity ranges. The change compelled the teacher to make new adjustments which necessitated assistance from the superintendent. Thus, the teacher was influenced greatly both in the organization of materials and in the methods of teaching in the grade or grades to which he was assigned by the directions and point of view of the superintendent. In the course of time the leadership of the superintendent became a powerful influence in determining the selection of instructional materials. Today, the teacher looks to the superintendent or the official representatives of the superintendent for guidance in the organization, selection, and use of instructional materials.

The fact that the superintendent is responsible for the curriculum in use in a system of schools does not absolve the teacher from large responsibility with respect to the selection of instructional materials. Even though the superintendent is expected to organize the curriculum prescribed by law, to take the initiative in the adaptation of the curriculum to local needs, and to provide much of the materials of instruction, he is dependent on teachers for the determination of many aspects of curriculum. This dependence on the teacher has led the superintendent to demand increased academic and professional qualifications on the part of new teachers, to provide in-service training opportunities for teachers already employed, and to encourage teachers in self-improvement through the sharing of responsibilities for the general improvement of instructional materials.

Participation of teachers in improvement of instructional materials

As a means of systematizing the contributions to curriculum improvement, some superintendents have assigned to classroom teachers specific duties with respect to the reorganization of instructional materials. The practice is very generally advocated by authorities in administration. The wisdom of so doing is

supported by considerable experimental evidence, an example of which is furnished by Holloway in a study which he made of the preparation of curriculum materials in Maryland.¹

Holloway found (1) that the teachers engaged in curriculum-making did very much more professional reading than they had ever done before in any one year, and more than the teachers of certain control groups which he studied during the period of the investigation; (2) that the teachers of his experimental groups continued to improve in professional spirit, attitude, and teaching skill in the years immediately following the experiment at a faster rate than did the teachers of the control groups; (3) that the children in the schools constituting the experimental groups made on the whole slightly greater gains in the functions tested during the period of the experiment than did the children with whom they were compared; and (4) that the communities served by the experimental teachers were brought into closer relation to the work of the schools through the growing initiative on the part of the teachers and the vitalizing effect of the curriculum-making projects in which they were engaged.

The implications of Holloway's study and of other studies of similar character are (1) that active participation in curriculum improvement tends to make teachers more efficient as classroom instructors than does supervision carried on in the customary way; (2) that systematic curriculum study and production is a most effective means of securing professional growth of teachers in service; and (3) that the curriculum most likely to be administered effectively is the one that is constantly being studied co-operatively by administrative and supervisory officers and the members of the teaching staff.

¹ W. J. Holloway, *Participation in Curriculum Making as a Means of Supervision of Rural Schools*, pp. 2-4. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

Value to teacher of curriculum projects

A comprehensive curriculum project under wise leadership tends to become a means rather than an end. It provides the occasion for a functional reconsideration of educational theory and practice and the specific motivation for continued professional improvement.

Other professional influences on instructional materials

A number of other professional influences have tended to modify the teacher's conception and use of instructional materials, especially in recent years. Prior to 1920 the colleges and universities exercised a strong influence both on the materials of instruction used in the high schools and on the methods of teaching. In recent years many high schools have had to face the fact that since the large majority of their students do not go to college they must provide instructional offerings more acceptable to the non-college type of student. Accordingly, many elective courses have been provided from which the pupils who do not plan to go to college are permitted to choose. Some latitude with respect to electives is also permitted to pupils who are preparing for admission to college.

Since 1920 the direct influences of colleges and universities on the materials of instruction in high schools have tended to decline. On the contrary, indirect influences have tended to increase. The development of teachers colleges and the rapid growth of schools and departments of education in universities and liberal arts colleges have made available opportunities for training that have exerted strong influences on teachers in both elementary and secondary schools to participate vigorously in the improvement of instructional materials.

Professional associations of national scope and their committees have also been influential during the last fifty years in gradually helping teachers to undertake the reorganization of the materials of instruction used in the schools. Without doubt the reports of these numerous professional committees, such as the

Committee of Ten (1893), the Committee of Fifteen (1895), the Committee of Seven (1896), the Committee of Eight (1905), the Committee of Five (1907), the Committee on the Economy of Time (1910), and the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements (1920), have had the effect of making teachers aware of the larger social relations of the schools. These reports have extended the horizons of teachers so that they look beyond their classrooms and realize that pupils must be prepared in comprehensive ways for their individual careers.

The findings of research in the field of education and the recommendations of school surveys have resulted in an enlargement of the thinking of teachers about the functions of the schools. Research in child development has been especially productive in bringing about a new attitude with regard to education. Supporting evidence is provided by Brueckner ¹ who shows the influence of such research on the organization of instruction in reading and arithmetic with special reference to adapting instruction to the optimum periods for the acquisition of skills. School surveys in which teachers have often participated and by which they have been largely affected are administrative devices for keeping schools in contact with social needs. In support of the claim of influences exerted by surveys in promoting administrative action on the part of teachers, Caswell ² found that 34 school systems out of 50 which had school surveys engaged in programs of curriculum revision after the surveys were completed. Of these 34 schools, 16 gave direct testimony that the move was made as a result of the surveys, and 8 said that curriculum revision was an indirect result. In short, 70 per cent of the schools made revisions in their curriculums as a result — direct or indirect — of survey findings.

¹ Leo J. Brueckner, "Typical Research Relating the Curriculum to Child Development," *Elementary School Journal*, XL (January, 1940), 358-65.

² H. L. Caswell, *City School Surveys*, p. 72. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 358. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

THE TEACHER AS A PRODUCER OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS

It may be well at this point to try to answer a question which has doubtless suggested itself frequently to the reader of the foregoing pages. How are teachers to accomplish anything by way of contributions to the curriculum in the face of such powerful influences as have been enumerated? It is easy in theory to advocate administrative intervention in the development of the curriculum by teachers, but when it is shown that legislatures, school boards, and organized social groups are acting without professional advice, teachers are not unlikely to come to the conclusion that they can hardly bring to pass any of the changes that they feel to be desirable.

One way in which teachers can assert an influence has been for the most part neglected in the past. If teachers would prepare new and interesting curriculum materials so as to give concrete examples of what should be done by way of expanding and changing the materials of instruction they would exert an influence which could not be resisted. What is here advocated is not isolated effort on the part of scattered individuals but concerted effort on the part of an organized profession. Teachers as a body have been so completely absorbed in the discussion and consideration of methods of teaching that they have not made the progress in curriculum construction which is essential if the expanding needs of the social order are to be met.

A single illustration will support what has been said. Every teacher realizes that something needs to be done to supply American schools with instructional materials which will acquaint pupils with the unique character of American institutions. Most teachers are waiting for some textbook maker to supply what is needed. If instead of waiting each teacher would prepare a single unit of instruction the cumulative effect would be enormous. To be sure, the preparation of a unit of social instruction is a duty that lies outside of classroom activity. It is a scholarly

duty which differs from teaching in the ordinary meaning of that term.

The reference to social studies should not obscure the fact that there are opportunities for constructing curriculum materials in other fields. What is needed in education circles is a new and broad interpretation of the obligations of teachers for the improvement of the curriculum.

Organization of instructional materials for teaching purposes

Properly qualified teachers who understand the objectives of the curriculum they are expected to teach organize the instructional materials for the pupils in units, problems, projects, or topics. The pupils are then directed to assimilate materials through which the experiences planned are to be acquired. The choice of assimilative materials rests largely with the teacher. The single textbook, even though it may be excellent and well selected, rarely provides an adequate body of assimilative material. If the teacher knows the materials available through the public library, school library, supplementary lists provided by the school system, and sources discovered through personal research, he can enrich the curriculum and thereby increase its value to the learners.

Enrichment of instructional materials

It is in the field of enrichment that the teacher can make important contributions as a producer of instructional materials. The teacher over a period of years, through personal study and travel, often collects significant materials which can be made available to the pupils. These materials may consist of pictures, cartoons, objects, maps, diagrams, graphs, tabulations of data, models, apparatus, pamphlets, rare books, and various types of fugitive documents. The teacher can use such materials to arouse interest, to clarify thought, and to stimulate assimilative study. Furthermore, local materials well known to the teacher, such as history, biography, industrial processes, art contributions,

and personal memoirs, may possess great value for instructional purposes as vitalizing influences for curriculum units. If the teacher incorporates the types of materials enumerated in this paragraph into the curriculum and makes them accessible to the pupils, he personally contributes to the improvement of instructional materials in his school system. If in addition, through writing, the essence of his contribution is rendered available to other classes in the local school or school system and to schools in general, his influence on the improvement of the materials of instruction may become significant.

The teacher must be willing to co-operate with administrative officers, supervisors, and other teachers in the improvement of instructional materials. He should not be a slave to tradition and resist the efforts of improvement; neither should he be over-friendly toward innovations. He should welcome contributions supported by the findings of research and should be willing to put his ingenuity to work to discover new applications of important contributions. Thus, in spite of tradition and the presence of many restricting influences, the teacher can establish a relationship with instructional materials that will allow much freedom for creative endeavor and will result in personal contributions of professional importance.

ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHER FOR INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

(The expansion and enrichment of curriculum materials, especially in recent years, have added to the responsibilities of the teacher for the protection and the efficient administration of instructional materials as well as for their appropriate use. Filing cabinets, bookcases, and storage cabinets or closets have become a necessary part of classroom equipment to facilitate the administration of the variety of materials required in instruction. The quantity of instructional materials that can be secured on requisition from the board of education in many cities is sur-

prising. The city of Chicago, for example, publishes an approved library list¹ of elementary-school books aggregating 112 pages, the average number of titles to the page being approximately thirty. These books may be secured on requisition of the school principal.

The proper care of the instructional materials provided by boards of education for classroom use takes a considerable toll of the time and energy of the teacher. It is therefore essential for the teacher to be fully informed regarding the responsibilities that must be assumed when such materials are supplied at public expense. /

Participation in the selection of instructional materials

The various books used as materials in school systems can be classified roughly into three types, namely, textbooks, supplementary books, and books for recreational reading. The selection of these books for the approved lists from which local schools may requisition is too great a task for any board of education or any single administrative officer; it is a task for the whole body of teachers. The participation of the entire staff in the selective process is required if the varied needs of different types of pupils are to be met. Not all school systems invite the participation of teachers in the preparation of classified lists. In such cases the teachers should make known their willingness to render the services of selection.

Whipple² in an investigation of the procedures used in the selection of books by school systems found six methods in use in one hundred cities, the practices of which are reported in Table 5.

Examination of this table reveals some interesting variations in the practices of selecting textbooks, supplementary books, and books for recreational reading. Whereas selection by a central

¹ *Approved Library List for Elementary Schools*. Chicago: Board of Education, Chicago Public Schools, 1940.

² Whipple, *op. cit.*, p. 87.

TABLE 5. PERCENTAGE OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS FOLLOWING EACH OF SIX TYPES OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURE IN THE SELECTION OF BOOKS

Procedure	Text-books	Supplementary Books	Recreational Reading Books
1. Selection by central book committee.....	64	28	20
2. Selection by members of the central-office staff.....	14	35	23
3. Selection by central curriculum committee..	12	8	0
4. Selection based on consensus of opinion of all staff members concerned.....	5	1	0
5. Guided selection by the school principal and teachers.....	4	16	23
6. Unguided selection by the school principal and teachers.....	1	12	18
Total	100	100	84 *

* Sixteen per cent of the systems secured all recreational reading books through co-operation with the public library.

book committee is the leading method in the choice of textbooks, selection by members of the central-office staff is the leading practice in the choice of supplementary books. The school principal and teachers under the guidance of the central-office staff exercise greater influence in the selection of books for recreational reading than they do in the selection of either textbooks or supplementary books. The data indicate very clearly that as yet school textbooks are selected very largely without the participation of the principals and teachers in city systems. In states with uniform adoptions textbooks are not infrequently selected by state boards of education without careful study of the fitness of the books to provide instructional materials for the educational programs of many of the different schools in which their use is required.

Participation on the part of teachers in the selection of books is secured in some school systems by submitting various possible choices to trial in the classrooms prior to adoption. However, the data in support of the plan do not warrant the conclusion that even half of the teaching personnel in city school systems

are privileged to receive valuable professional experience and render highly useful service in the evaluation of instructional material through participation in this type of consideration and experimental use.¹ In the eleven states in which the authority for the adoption of textbooks for public schools is conferred on special textbook commissions or state boards of education, it does not seem to be true that the teachers who use the books participate to any extent in the processes of selection. This situation should be changed.

Responsibility for free textbooks

It is estimated that approximately 65 per cent of the public school pupils in the United States are now provided with free textbooks.² The use of free text materials by so large a proportion of the school population makes the administration of textbooks almost a universal problem for the teachers of the United States. The principal issue involved is one of protecting the investment of the community in the books from unnecessary loss through carelessness on the part of pupils. Since a free textbook is not a gift to a pupil, but rather a loan, the school must assume custodial responsibility for the book. It must try to keep the book in usable condition during the period of its expected life. The parent of the pupil receiving a free textbook is expected to be responsible for the proper use of the book during the period of possession by his child. The teacher as the custodian of the book must provide the supervisory oversight which its protection requires.

¹ Whipple found that 14 per cent of the school systems studied always tried out textbooks in classrooms prior to adoption and 5.8 per cent tried out supplementary books. Thirty per cent reported that they usually tried out textbooks and 26 per cent supplementary books. Forty per cent claimed that they might occasionally try out both textbooks and supplementary books; 16 per cent stated they did not submit textbooks to such trial, and 28 per cent that they did not try out supplementary books.

² Paul W. Lange, *The Administration of Free Textbooks in City School Systems*, p. 26. Chicago: Private Edition, Distributed by the University of Chicago Libraries, 1940.

Boards of education in cities providing free textbooks frequently enact rules fixing the responsibility of the teacher for the care of books. The rules usually specify that the teacher is responsible for the use and care of such books and that periodic inspections must be made and fines imposed with the consent and knowledge of the school principal for destructive misuse by the pupils. Textbook records are required as an administrative device to facilitate periodic inspection and accounting. Ordinarily, the teacher is expected to keep two types of records: (1) a record of all textbooks received from the school principal; (2) a record card of the books loaned to each pupil. The maintenance of such records requires that each textbook received by a teacher be stamped or labeled with the name of the school or school district and be given a copy number which serves as the basis of accounting.

The keeping of the textbook records and the administration of the use of the books by the pupils according to the regulations of the board of education are heavy responsibilities which require not only alertness and care but also tact and diplomacy. When a book reveals evidence of gross misuse by a pupil, it is the responsibility of the teacher to deal with the pupil and the parent not merely for the purpose of protecting public property but quite as much for the purpose of teaching both pupil and parent to respect public property. The difficulty of the teacher is increased by the conflict between board regulation with respect to fines and the ruling of certain courts that damage to property growing out of negligence or carelessness by a pupil is not a legal cause for the collection of fines from pupil or parent.¹

For the extra responsibility of caring for free textbooks the teacher receives important benefits, as do the pupils also. The plan insures text materials for all pupils at the beginning of each school term. No longer does the teacher have to improvise materials of instruction while waiting for parents to purchase the

¹ Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools*, p. 532. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.

necessary books for their children. Furthermore, if adopted textbooks prove unsatisfactory or inadequate, change of materials is always possible, whereas change is invariably difficult in communities in which textbooks are the private property of school patrons. An additional benefit to the teacher is the greater number and variety of books made available for classroom use when they are furnished at public expense than is possible when they are privately owned.

Responsibility for textbooks under the rental system

Some school systems unable to install a system of free textbooks either because of inadequate funds or because of questions of law seek to meet the problem of the excessive cost of textbooks to parents by furnishing books on a rental basis. The annual cost to parents for the rental of the necessary textbooks from the school system is about one-fourth the cost under the private-ownership plan. Similarly, the cost to the community for the books of indigent children is reduced in approximately the same ratio.

The books desired for a school year are purchased by the board of education and payment is arranged with the book companies in yearly installments equivalent to the rental receipts. If four years is the period fixed as the expected life of a book, then the annual rental will be one-fourth the cost of the books. Delivery of books is made to the school principal who distributes the responsibility for administration to his teachers. The collection of the rental cost may be assumed either by the principal or by the teachers, according to the plan adopted. The procedure in keeping records of the books loaned is identical with that described in the foregoing section for free textbooks and the details of administration are much the same, except for the fact that the parent now must assume full responsibility for the loss or damage to the books loaned.

As in the case of free textbooks the rental plan provides pupils with text materials at the time the materials are needed for class-

room use in a larger percentage of cases than under any private purchase plan. For the advantages thus secured the teacher must assume the responsibility for the administration of the loan system. In general, most teachers will consider that the benefits of the loan system more than compensate them for the added administrative responsibilities.

Responsibility for the various aids to teaching

In recent years many aids to instruction, such as work books, collections of pictures, slides, films, models, and laboratory apparatus, have been developed and are now widely used in the schools. These aids are ordinarily purchased by the board of education for the use of the teacher. In schools in which budget conditions will not permit such expenditures, the aids are often supplied by the parent-teacher association and not infrequently by the teacher at his own expense. Instruction and the materials of instruction have undergone great changes in recent times. The modern teacher insists that such aids to instruction be provided, if he is to accept responsibility for the best possible results.

The efficient use of the numerous aids to instruction and the proper care of the equipment involved make administrative demands on the time and attention of the teacher. These demands should not be regarded by the teacher as an encroachment on the time needed for instruction. Rather, the demands should be viewed as legitimate because the aids facilitate learning and teaching.

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schools, and colleges, outside of the formal work of the classrooms and have secured recognition and approval by school authorities as playing a part in the education of the individual. The term extracurriculum activities covers a variety of pupil or student enterprises, such as the various athletic and music organizations, school paper, school annual, student council, debating society, science club, stamp club, camera club, and many others.

CHANGE IN STATUS OF EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

A complete reversal in the attitude of administrative officers and teachers toward extracurriculum activities has taken place in the last thirty years. Whereas both athletic and nonathletic contests were only tolerated in schools thirty years ago and were not infrequently discouraged and even opposed, today schools vie with one another in encouraging the development of all types of pupil enterprises and in striving to utilize effectively the activities of pupils outside the classroom. The administrators in many schools now seek to incorporate the program of extracurriculum activities into the educational program. By so doing the school is able to extend its service to pupils by providing them with many kinds of experiences, by helping them to assume social and civic responsibilities, and by making worthy use of their leisure time.

Some people have dubbed extracurriculum activities "fads and frills" and would eliminate all such from the school. They fail to see the values accruing to the pupil from participation in these enterprises and overlook the fact that the education of the pupil goes on outside as well as inside the classroom. Apparently, they do not recognize the facts that extracurriculum activities have become established in modern schools and that the experiences therein received constitute a natural, normal, and necessary aspect of young life.

EXPLANATION OF PUPIL INTEREST IN EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

In the upper grades of the elementary school and in the high school the predominant interests of pupils are social. Young people crave the opportunity to associate with their kind. Hence, the tendency of the pupils to form groups and to organize clubs and associations designed to further their common purposes is altogether natural. If they are denied the opportunities to secure experiences in group activities under the direction of the school, they will seek social satisfaction through membership in gangs, cliques, and organizations outside the school.

Tendencies of boys to become members of gangs

Group associations and organizations are more numerous among boys of adolescent age than most people would suppose; especially is this true in urban communities. Thrasher¹ found in a study of Chicago and its environs in 1926 over 1,300 organized gangs with an estimated membership of more than 25,000 boys and young men. Since both informal and formal organizations of adolescents are more or less characteristic of the structure of the social life of young people, especially boys, in virtually all towns and cities, the effect of the associations on the characters of boys becomes a matter of serious concern. Boys who become identified with out-of-school gangs tend to become dissociated from the influences of the reputable social groups of their communities and as a result are unduly influenced by contacts with undesirable types of gang life. Thus, the education of the street may exercise greater influence in determining the habits, attitudes, and ideals of many boys in urban communities than do the schools.

¹ F. M. Thrasher, *The Gang*, p. 5. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927.

Influences of unsupervised gangs

The educational influence of the city street has been very aptly characterized by Woods in a report on a gang area in Boston.

The term "street children" is used advisedly, for as a matter of fact most of the children of this locality live on the street when they are not asleep. The streets educate with fatal precision. Sometimes in a little side street, you will see a hundred children at play. In this promiscuous street life, there is often every sort of license that can evade police authority. Juvenile rowdyism thrives. Disrespect for decency and law is the result.

The same thing is revealed by a study of boys' gangs. The jokes, the horseplay, the tendency to ridicule and make light of everything, which are the life of the gang, issue in an essentially lawless disposition. This includes restlessness under restraint, low indulgence, carelessness, oftentimes cruelty.

These are the predominating traits of many street children. In some it is so marked that they become incorrigible truants or develop criminal tendencies. A small minority of these children manage to keep an obedient, law-abiding spirit, in spite of street education, although one does not know how.

The fact, however, is indisputable that the thing the schools have to contend with, and that which brings shipwreck to much educational effort in the district, is this predominating impulse to get free from restraints. It is easy to see how soon such a quality could develop the lawbreaker. With undisciplined intellectual cleverness or manual deftness it would be easy to produce the expert criminal.¹

High-school fraternities and sororities

The experiences acquired through some forms of pupil organizations, especially secret fraternities and sororities, have been considered so baneful to pupils of elementary- and high-school ages that a number of states have enacted laws prohibiting membership by public school pupils in any secret or exclusive group. The laws have proved ineffective. Mere prohibition is wrong; something more than suppression is required. The school has an obligation to provide for pupils a social environment

¹ Robert A. Woods, *The City Wilderness: A Settlement Study*, South End, Boston, pp. 235-36. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1898.

which will satisfy their desires to live the life of their kind. Schools which have sponsored and developed social life among pupils successfully are not troubled with out-of-school fraternities and gangs. They have substituted desirable social activities in school for the baneful out-of-school type. Pupils quickly recognize the superiority of proper and wholesome organizations as contrasted with the undesirable types of fraternities and secret organizations. While extracurriculum activities can be justified in school as substitutes for the undesirable social activities carried on outside of school, there are other important explanations for the exceptional development of extracurriculum programs in recent years.

RESPONSIBILITY OF SCHOOL FOR DEVELOPMENT OF EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

The responsibility of the modern school for extracurriculum activities is based on the needs of pupils for leisure-time enterprises. Formerly the homes provided many chores and duties for children before and after school hours and not infrequently in the evening. Today the situation is very different. Relatively few children have useful employment during non-school hours. Providing worth-while activities to engage the interests of children and to occupy their leisure hours has become a duty of the school. As a partial solution to the problem the school has turned to extracurriculum activities.

The assumption of responsibility for leisure-time activities has brought many new duties to administrative officers and teachers. The teachers in the *Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*¹ reported 158 different duties which they regarded as belonging to the extracurriculum. Since some teachers are still unaware of the value of these activities, they regard assignments to sponsorship of such activities as an imposition. They have

¹ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, pp. 383-411. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

refused to serve as sponsors unless required to do so by the board of education.

Because of this attitude many boards of education have enacted rules specifying the extracurriculum duties of teachers. Some boards insert clauses in the contracts of teachers specifying that extracurriculum assignments by the superintendent or principal must be accepted.

Generally speaking, the members of boards of education have less understanding and appreciation of extracurriculum activities than do teachers. Hence it is not uncommon to find the professional conception of the place and function of the program of activities in a school far in advance of the adopted regulations of boards of education. The teacher should therefore look to the school principal for the definition of responsibility for extracurriculum activities rather than to the regulations of the school board.

Standards for the organization of activities

The State Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania several years ago proposed six standards for the guidance of high-school principals in the support of activities. Teachers and principals were encouraged to promote activities of the following types:

1. Any activity with an avocational, recreational, social service, civic, moral, vocational, or any other value for adolescent training.
2. Any activity which will teach pupils to perform better the desirable activities they will perform anyway.
3. Any activity which will so occupy the interests of pupils that they will lose interest in unwholesome activities.
4. Any activity in school hours which will replace the pursuit of a harmful activity outside of school. It is desired of course that the substitution of the wholesome activity will accompany the suppression of the unwholesome activity.
5. Any activity for the youth which has the sanction of ac-

pected adult practice in avocational pursuits. In this connection it should be pointed out that the club activities of the high-school pupils should be virtually as varied as the nonvocational interests of adult life.

6. Any activity which will train for the worthy use of leisure time.

The use of guiding standards, such as those just enumerated, makes possible a functional development of extracurriculum activities in a school. Administrative officers and teachers should evaluate the programs of activities in their schools and the contributions of individual organizations; when any of these organizations departs from its purposes reorganization of the activity should be undertaken or meetings should be discontinued.

SCOPE OF ACTIVITIES IN MODERN SCHOOLS

Elementary schools

How large a list of activities some schools approve and sponsor can be illustrated by reference to recent reports. Data collected in Seattle, Washington, several years ago in sixty-two elementary schools enrolling 56,890 pupils, revealed a list of 738 activities, or an average of twelve per school. More recent data collected by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association disclose a remarkable development in elementary schools of activities designed to provide socializing experiences for pupils. These activities include school assemblies, safety patrols, school councils, choral groups, orchestras, banks, drum corps, athletic organizations, and service clubs of various types.¹

¹ *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*, p. 240. *Fourteenth Year-book* of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1935.

Secondary schools

Secondary schools in general have given more attention to extracurriculum activities than have elementary schools. Data compiled in the National Survey of Secondary Education ¹ show that the number of activities supported by a school varies with enrollment, the ratio of activities to pupils enrolled being almost a constant figure. In high schools enrolling more than 750 pupils the median number of nonathletic activities reported was approximately twenty-five and of athletic activities slightly less. The extent to which the nonathletic interscholastic activities engaged the attention of pupils is revealed by data assembled from 158 selected schools. In these schools 30,782 pupils received training through participation in 575 preliminary contests. Ten thousand, two hundred and two pupils actually participated in 467 contests; 6,875 participated in 619 nonathletic tournaments and meets, of national, state, and district scope in music, art, debating, dramatic reading, extemporaneous speaking, stock judging, and scholarship contests. If the number of pupils who participated in preliminary contests for nonathletic interscholastic competition is added to the number taking part in nonathletic contests, tournaments, and meets, a total of 47,859 pupils were provided opportunities for participation through such extracurriculum activities, or approximately half of the pupils enrolled in the 158 schools.

In an intensive study of nonathletic activities in twenty-four secondary schools selected because of reported special success in the development of such activities, a total of 606 nonathletic activities was found. Most of the activities were of the intramural type, although interschool competitions were carried on in some. It was possible to combine the 606 organizations into 284 different groups of activities and to classify these into the seven types shown in Table 6.

¹ William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke, *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 26, 1932. Pp. 174.

TABLE 6. TYPES OF ACTIVITIES AND NUMBER OF EACH TYPE
REPORTED IN 24 SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS *

Type of Activity	Number
I. Student government, school service, and honorary organizations.....	29
II. Social, moral, leadership and guidance clubs.....	23
III. Departmental clubs.....	68
IV. Publications and journalistic organizations.....	10
V. Dramatic clubs, literary societies, and forensic activities..	27
VI. Musical organizations.....	22
VII. Special-interest clubs.....	<u>105</u>
Total.....	284

* Reavis and Van Dyke, *ibid.*, pp. 78-84.

The schools which were studied varied greatly in the proportion of activities found in the seven different types, revealing the absence of guiding principles in the organization and administration of extracurriculum programs.

Balanced program of activities in secondary schools

The school that would provide a balanced program of extracurriculum activities must study carefully the interests and needs of its pupil personnel and gradually develop, through intelligent sponsorship, the activities which pupils need and will support. The program adopted should undergo change from year to year in response to the changing interests and needs of the pupils. The life of an activity will vary from school to school, ranging from less than a year to more than thirty years as found by Reavis and Van Dyke.¹ The median life of an activity was found to be approximately four and one-half years.

Reduced to the lowest terms, an extracurriculum program should provide a minimum of three types of pupil activities that have for their purposes, respectively, (1) the promotion of wholesome play and recreation; (2) the encouragement and development of social responsibility; and (3) the satisfaction of special intellectual interests, such as hobbies, projects, and avocational pursuits.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

Organized activities in both intramural and interscholastic athletics are carried on in all secondary schools. An investigator¹ who prepared a report for the National Survey of Secondary Education found that 70.6 per cent of the 327 schools selected for study maintained intramural programs of athletics. Virtually all these schools supported interscholastic athletic activities in one or more sports for boys, some schools supporting as many as twelve different competitive sports. While no figure is available to show what percentage of the school enrollment participated in athletic activities, the majority of both boys and girls probably participated in intramural athletic activities of some type. Of the boys who participated in practice for interscholastic contests about two-thirds actually engaged in the interscholastic competitions.

Institutions of higher learning

If the findings of the study of Chapin and Mehus² at the University of Minnesota are typical of practices in colleges in general, it seems to be true that extracurriculum activities thrive even more in the colleges than in the elementary and secondary schools. The authors of the Minnesota Survey found 300 active organizations on the campus of the University of Minnesota in 1925 for a student body of 10,000, or three organizations for every 100 students. The records of the University showed that a total of 533 different organizations had been formed between 1887 and 1925. Of this total 233 had become inactive. The 300 active organizations were grouped under eleven categories, namely, athletics, oratory and debate, fraternities and sororities, literary societies, dramatics, music, religion, publications, student government, social clubs, and miscellaneous. Analysis of data

¹ P. Roy Brammell, *Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 27, 1932. Pp. 143.

² F. S. Chapin and O. M. Mehus, *Extra-Curricular Activities at the University of Minnesota*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1929. Pp. 140.

supplied by 4,647 students revealed that the highest percentage of participation by this group was in fraternities and sororities (38.9 per cent) and the lowest, in oratory and debate (1.8 per cent). Approximately one-fifth of the students reporting participated in athletic and religious activities. The percentage of students who participated in all eleven types of activities was 12.5.

MANAGEMENT OF EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

The administrative officers of a school system rather than the teachers are responsible for the formulation of the policies governing the organization and administration of extracurriculum activities. Often these policies are an outgrowth of the previous experience of the principal or superintendent. Sometimes the policies are established by members of the board of education who reflect the sentiment of pressure groups in the community interested in the outcome of games rather than in the character of experiences and training secured for the pupils who participate.

The responsibility for sponsoring the activities, on the other hand, falls primarily on the classroom teachers. If the sponsors are to perform their task efficiently they must study their responsibilities with respect to the training provided by the activities for the participating groups. Broad knowledge of extracurriculum activities is indispensable to the modern teacher irrespective of the grade level at which the teacher may serve. The teacher should be familiar with the literature of extracurriculum activities, should understand the interests of the pupils in such activities, and should be willing to co-operate with the principal and faculty in organizing and sponsoring the program of activities which the school in any given semester may provide.

Importance of proper sponsorship

Intelligent sponsorship is fundamental to the success of extracurriculum activities. Young people in the upper elementary

grades and in high school have not reached the stage of maturity which warrants the abandonment of guidance on the part of the school. These young people require guidance both in the selection of activities and in the extent of their individual participation. If unguided, they may fail to secure the balanced training which it is possible to obtain through extracurriculum activities. Not infrequently individuals give excessive time and attention to activities. To prevent waste of time and effort and to secure for the pupil the kind of experiences needed for his development, sponsorship is provided in most schools.

The sponsor of a particular activity or of a particular group of pupils, that is, the member of the faculty who is charged with the direction of the particular activity or group, counsels with the pupils in the choice of activities and in the planning of programs. The wise sponsor never dominates the pupils assigned to his care. Such a course would quickly destroy many of the values of the activities. The sponsor enters into comradeship with the pupils in the pursuit of their recognized purposes. He knows when and how to permit liberty of action and when to curb unwise action.

Characteristics of sponsors

Not all teachers make good sponsors of pupil activities. Some are too autocratic, some are too lax, and some possess no interest in the activities nor in the young people sponsored. Obviously, it would be unwise for a principal to assign sponsorship duties to such teachers. Others possess keen interests in the many-sided development of the pupils and are willing to devote much time and attention to the problems of sponsorship. Some teachers are greatly desired as sponsors by the pupils and often carry more than their share of the responsibilities of the school for the informal training of the pupils through extracurriculum activities.

Training teachers for sponsorship

Just as school authorities have been compelled to develop programs of continued education in subject matter for in-service teachers as a means of improving classroom work, so they often find it necessary to train teachers for the service of sponsoring extracurriculum activities. Also, schools for the preparation of teachers are already including in their programs courses in extracurriculum activities and are advising teachers in preparation to become proficient in one or more lines.

The Central State Teachers College at Stevens Point, Wisconsin, has for a number of years advised its students who are preparing to seek positions as teachers in small high schools to qualify as sponsors for one or more extracurriculum activities. The bulletin of this institution stated as early as 1928:

The large factor in the success of a beginning teacher, the ability to manage extra-curriculum activities, has been carefully provided for in the curriculum of the High School Teachers' Department. Courses of instruction in the principal fields of student activity were organized six years ago, and a requirement set that each graduate must have completed at least six hour credits in one selected field, entirely aside from participation in the Teachers College activities. The curriculum now offers a choice of Dramatics and Forensics, High School Music, High School Arts, School Journalism, Athletic Coaching, or permits the choice of the Teacher Librarian's Training Course. Sufficient elective opportunity is provided in the general curriculum so that a student can take up two of these lines of work, if he so desires, and many do so. In this way we can feel assured that each one of our graduates is able to contribute something very definite to the success of the school to which he goes, something that is frequently better appreciated by the community than technical excellence of work in the classroom. The ability to do work of this kind is often the decisive factor in securing the prospective teacher his place, to begin with. Altogether, we feel that the six credit hours spent in the study of some student activity, is one of the most profitable ways in which the prospective teacher can spend his efforts; he will certainly be expected to contribute something to the life of the school and community, as we have already seen, and he can undertake this work with far better chances of success if he is not merely dependent upon a haphazard ex-

perience in student activities, which is all that most of our beginning high school teachers have had in the past.¹

Sponsorship of activities required of many teachers

Because of the rapid increase in the number of extracurriculum activities in public schools, it is apparent that teachers generally must prepare themselves for the duties of sponsorship. Participation in activities in elementary school, high school, and college provides helpful experience but not sufficient preparation for these duties. All teacher-training institutions must develop interests on the part of their students in extraclass activities and must provide appropriate training for sponsorship. The problem of inadequate preparation has prompted some school administrators to provide specific instruction for their teachers in the organization and direction of such activities through extension courses and through faculty meetings devoted to the discussion of extracurriculum programs and the problems of sponsorship. The difficulty encountered in this belated education is that a teacher whose initial preparation has included no reference to extracurriculum activities is likely to be as indifferent to such matters as is the parent whose education was received in the high school of a generation ago. Both the untrained teacher and the parent commonly think that the school is strictly an academic institution engaged in the business of book learning only. Both must be aroused and led to think of the school as a social institution with responsibility for changing the pupil from a mere individual into an intelligent member of society. The realization of this socializing function of the school compels the teacher to become interested in the pupil's extraclass activities as well as his classroom activities and experiences to the end that he may acquire social understanding and ideals. The well-educated pupil should exhibit group responsibility, self-control, respect for the rights of others, a sense of fair play, and a disposition favorable to co-operation.

¹ E. T. Smith, *Training Teachers for Small High Schools*, p. 12. Bulletin No. 191, Central State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wisconsin, 1928.

Attitude of teachers toward sponsorship

Some teachers may regard the demand that they participate in the social training of pupils as so many extra or added duties. Such an attitude should be promptly changed. The teacher should be willing to serve the pupils to the extent that time permits. For a teacher to do otherwise is to restrict his influence on the pupils and to evade one of the responsibilities of the school. Sponsorship of extracurriculum activities must be accepted by the teacher as a vital and necessary part of his program and a legitimate professional obligation.

Certain types of activities, such as interscholastic athletics, musical organizations, and special-interest clubs require sponsors who possess special qualifications. On the other hand, many activities can be sponsored by teachers without special technical qualifications who understand young people and who are willing to give time and effort to the guidance of these young people in the pursuit of interests approved by the school.

Since teachers in both elementary and secondary schools are required to assume duties of sponsorship for extracurriculum activities, it is important that they know the qualifications considered essential to success as sponsors. Light is thrown on this matter by the findings of Reavis and Van Dyke who collected from principals in twenty-four selected secondary schools statements of the qualifications desired in sponsors (Table 7). Study of the qualifications listed in this table shows that the teacher in preparing for teaching must consider the duties of sponsoring extracurriculum activities as sufficiently important to warrant a very definite effort to secure experience in activities both in training institutions and in practice schools and to acquire the preparation considered essential to sponsor several types of activities.

Right kind of sponsorship

The experience of teachers who have acted as sponsors is important in ascertaining the difficulties of schools in securing ef-

TABLE 7. QUALIFICATIONS DESIRED IN SPONSORS BY HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND PERCENTAGES OF PRINCIPALS MENTIONING EACH QUALIFICATION *

Qualifications of Sponsors	Percentages of Principals
Interest in the activities of the club being sponsored.....	83.3
Ability to perform the activities of the club being sponsored.....	66.7
Instructing a subject related to the activities of the club.....	54.2
Previous experience in sponsoring the type of club being sponsored	37.5
Previous experience in sponsoring extracurriculum activities...	33.3
Experience in performing the activities of the club through participation in a similar club in college.....	33.3
Specific training in sponsoring extracurriculum activities.....	29.2
Specific training in sponsoring the type of club being sponsored..	25.0
Youthful spirit.....	4.2
Vital interest in boys and girls.....	4.2
Ability to interest faculty and pupils in a given project.....	4.2

* Reavis and Van Dyke, *op. cit.*, p. 121.

ficient sponsorship. Sponsors are generally aware of the qualifications that are demanded. A special study was made through a questionnaire addressed to 606 sponsors in which they were asked what their preparation had been for the supervision they were called on to give (Table 8).

The evidence indicates that the special qualifications of teachers for the duties of sponsorship are somewhat meager. Hence, it may be necessary for the school principal to provide assistance for sponsors in overcoming the difficulties which they encounter. The experience of successful sponsors is also important in revealing the relations that have actually developed with pupils. In many cases, although the pupils are permitted to choose the clubs which they want to attend, they find themselves in uncongenial groups, or in clubs in which they have little interest or ability. In order to avoid such conditions, the sponsors should facilitate transfer to other activities when pupils appear maladjusted.

TABLE 8. QUALIFICATIONS OF SPONSORS AND PERCENTAGES OF SPONSORS MENTIONING EACH QUALIFICATION *

Qualifications	Percentages of Sponsors
Instructing in a subject or department closely related to the activities of the club.....	70.0
Special ability, skill, or interest in performing the activities of the club.....	37.6
Previous experience in handling the type of club being sponsored.....	28.4
Previous experience in handling clubs in general.....	16.8
Experience in the activities of the club through participation in a similar club in college.....	10.6
Specific training in sponsoring the type of club being sponsored..	7.9
Specific training in sponsoring extracurriculum activities in general.....	4.6

* Reavis and Van Dyke, *ibid.*, p. 120.

Time required in sponsoring activities

The sponsoring of extracurriculum activities makes demands on the time of teachers both during the regular school day and after school hours. The time set aside by the principal for the program of activities determines to a great extent the amount of time required of sponsors. However, the efficient performance of sponsorship duties invariably requires more time than that set aside for the meetings of the organizations sponsored. Of the 606 sponsors studied in the National Survey of Secondary Education, 229, or 37.8 per cent, reported that they spent, on the average, 3.2 hours of school time per week in sponsorship duties; 153, or 25.2 per cent, spent an average of 2 hours of out-of-school time per week; and 224, or 37 per cent, spent on the average, 4.4 hours of school and out-of-school time weekly on such duties. Some sponsors reported that they spent from 10 to 13 hours weekly on duties pertaining to sponsorship.¹

Value to teachers of serving as sponsors

The opportunities afforded teachers to get acquainted with pupils through the sponsoring of activities are unique. In most schools the participation of pupils in activities is voluntary.

¹ Reavis and Van Dyke, *ibid.*, p. 124.

Thus, the teacher as sponsor of an activity is permitted to observe pupils under conditions not always possible in classroom work. The knowledge of the pupils acquired under such conditions can be utilized by the teacher in guiding them in their classroom activities.

Also, the special intellectual interests growing out of units of classroom work may be utilized by the teacher in counseling pupils with respect to the further cultivation of interests in extracurriculum fields. In some schools the home-room teacher is a sponsor and is expected to guide his pupils in the choice of extracurriculum activities. This responsibility requires that the home-room sponsor understand both the program of activities provided by a school and the pupils to be sponsored.

CLAIMS MADE FOR PARTICIPATION IN EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

It is generally believed that extensive participation in extracurriculum activities results in understanding and friendly relations between teachers and pupils. Adherents of this view hold that classroom relations are greatly improved through association in extracurriculum activities and that better learning and teaching result. Activities are therefore regarded as a boon both to pupils and to teachers. It is also believed by many that the activities foster school loyalty on the part of pupils; that participation in activities tends to motivate regular class work, to develop initiative, co-operation, and responsibility, to create atmosphere and background for the program of studies, to provide valuable social experience, and to increase the interest of teachers in the pupil personnel through the experience acquired in sponsoring activities.

Values believed to be obtained from participation in activities

Reavis and Van Dyke¹ secured answers from 507 high-school

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 161.

alumni to the question, "On the basis of your experience with clubs and activities in the secondary school would you advise a freshman on entering a high school or an academy to join and participate in activities?" Four hundred and ninety-two of the answers, or 93 per cent, were unqualifiedly positive. Fourteen direct questions were also put by these investigators to 182 members of Kiwanis, Lions, and Rotary Clubs in cities adjacent to Chicago, to 88 graduate students in educational administration, and to 338 graduates of a large public high school whose date of graduation ranged from 1911 to 1927. The average per cent of positive responses to the questions made by the members of the three groups is shown in Table 9.¹

Socializing value of activities

The extracurriculum program of the school constitutes the practice field in which the young citizen acquires first-hand personal experience as a functioning member of social groups. There he learns in a vital way the meaning of civic responsibilities and their relation to school life. Such a program is a means of developing in the individual a genuine feeling for the responsibilities of group membership. Through thinking, feeling, and acting with a group as it performs its activities and seeks to realize its purposes, the individual is socialized, that is, made a functioning member of ordered society.

It is unfortunate that the school has been so long in discovering its true responsibility to its pupils. Now that the importance of providing wholesome informal as well as formal training for young people is realized, the difference between the curriculum and the extracurriculum tends to disappear. The activities now designated by the term "extracurriculum" will in course of time become an integral part of the school curriculum. While schools are in the transition period, parents should be induced to think of extracurriculum activities as aspects of education which give a real social character to the school life of the pupils. Through

¹ Reavis and Van Dyke, *ibid.*, p. 171.

TABLE 9. AVERAGE PER CENT OF POSITIVE ANSWERS MADE BY MEMBERS OF SERVICE CLUBS, GRADUATE STUDENTS IN EDUCATION, AND GRADUATES OF A PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL TO 14 DIRECT QUESTIONS REGARDING EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN HIGH SCHOOL

Questions	Average
1. Are activities of sufficient value to warrant their inclusion in the high-school program?	93.5
2. Is there a strong similarity between the problems of an officer in high school and an officer in an adult organization?	91.2
3. Were the officers elected in high school as a rule the type who commanded your respect?	86.9
4. Did office-holding in high school give you greater confidence in yourself as a leader?	78.5
5. Did office-holding in high school develop in you greater executive ability?	69.4
6. Did clubs have a positive influence in creating good citizenship in you?	74.4
7. Were the activities in college as effective as those in high school?	71.3
8. Have the community activities of adult life been as effective and satisfying as those of high-school days were to that period? . . .	73.7
9. Do you regard training in extracurriculum activities vital to club activity in adult life?	62.4
10. Do you think you should have spent more time in activities in high school?	65.3
11. Did membership in high-school clubs induce you to continue similar activities in adult life?	47.8
12. Did your experience as an officer in high school aid in serving as an officer in adult clubs?	54.0
13. Did extracurriculum activities tend to hold you in school longer than you would have stayed without them?	17.2
14. Did these activities influence your choice of work?	21.9

such activities broadening and finding experiences are provided which enable the individual to contribute in an important way to his own education.

CRITICISMS OF EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

The development of appropriate programs of extracurriculum activities is hampered in some communities by misunderstanding and opposition. Activities are criticized by taxpayers on the ground of cost and by citizens on the basis of purpose. The one

group holds that activities necessitate an unwarranted expenditure of public funds and the other attacks them as trivial and noneducational. Both groups can be easily disarmed by a clear statement of facts. It can be shown that the cost of extracurriculum activities is not usually met from the school budget, but from nominal membership dues or gate and door admission charges. The teachers who sponsor the activities generally receive no extra pay for their services. No extra cost for the use of the school building is involved inasmuch as the building is used for the purpose when idle during the regular school day or immediately after school. As to the vapid criticism that activities are trivial and noneducational, it can be easily shown that such activities are as important to young people as are nonvocational pursuits to adults. When fathers and mothers abandon all the organizations with which they affiliate, then their criticisms of the organized activities of the school children will have some point and will deserve serious consideration. Since the highest attribute of civilized man is his willingness to subordinate himself to the welfare of his fellows, it follows that the most important single responsibility of the modern school is effective training for group or community life. This desired result cannot be accomplished solely through classroom instruction. The school itself must be organized and conducted as a social laboratory in which young people under guidance apply the precepts of the classrooms.

MAINTAINING BALANCE BETWEEN ATHLETIC AND NONATHLETIC ACTIVITIES

Extracurriculum activities may be roughly divided into two groups, namely, athletic and nonathletic activities. Athletic activities are better established in the schools than the nonathletic. However, both kinds are essential and the problem of concern to the school is that of maintaining a proper balance between the two types. Ten to twenty years ago the tendency in most secondary schools was to overemphasize athletics. In

recent years the growth of nonathletic activities has been more rapid than that of athletic activities, although it can scarcely be said that the schools are as yet overemphasizing the nonathletic type.

The tendency in athletic activities in the last few years has been to broaden the program and to provide competitions of the intramural type instead of focusing the attention of the school on interscholastic or interschool contests. In the National Survey of Secondary Education it was found that two-thirds of the schools studied have programs of intramural athletics, that is, athletics carried on within an institution for the benefit of all the pupils rather than merely for the few who excel in athletic competitions. The intramural programs provide activities in the various group and individual sports. Through the organization of the sports appropriate for each season of the school year continuous competition can be provided between classes and between individuals equally matched in skill. The organization of intramural athletics enhances the recreational value of the sports and not only contributes to the enjoyment but also to the physical development of all the pupils. Athletics of this type also have the advantage of being relatively inexpensive as compared with the interscholastic athletics, and also of providing a much greater variety of physical activities — sixty-five intramural sports in the schools surveyed in contrast with twenty-six sports of the interscholastic type.

In the elementary schools relatively little attention has been given to interschool athletics. The aim has been to provide free play for all pupils and intramural competition for upper-grade boys and girls who are physically able to participate in athletic sports. The intramural program of the elementary school has attracted much less attention than has that of the secondary school. Generally speaking, it is also far less effective. The chief reasons for its general ineffectiveness have been (1) poor organization of the program, and (2) lack of competent sponsorship of individual activities.

CONTROLLING PRINCIPLES IN THE REGULATION OF EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

The literature on extracurriculum activities is so voluminous and school practices are so varied that it is difficult for a teacher to arrive at many principles which would be accepted by a majority of those who have studied extracurriculum practices. However, a limited number of principles of very general acceptance can be stated and supported by successful practice. These principles should be understood and used by administrative officers and teachers who accept responsibility for the organization and management of activities in elementary and secondary schools.

Participation should be open to all pupils of the age level or grade groups for which an activity is planned

Elementary schools very generally conduct their activities on the democratic basis implied in the foregoing principle. Secondary schools are sometimes less democratic with respect to freedom of participation in extracurriculum activities. The tendency in those schools which do not follow this principle is probably accounted for by the fact that it is common to impose academic restrictions on pupils desiring to participate in interscholastic athletics. Data collected in the National Survey of Secondary Education in 224 secondary schools considered to have innovative practices in the organization and administration of nonathletic extracurriculum activities, reveal that only 36.2 per cent of these schools operate on the policy of having the activities open to all pupils.¹ The junior high schools in this group exceed all other types in permitting freedom of participation, 53.1 per cent having no restrictions as to membership in nonathletic organizations. Nearly a fifth of the entire group of schools maintained minimum academic requirements as a prerequisite to membership in any group. Approximately two-fifths of the schools maintained

¹ Reavis and Van Dyke, *ibid.*, p. 65.

other kinds of requirements, some being general and applicable to all activities and others being specific and applicable to individual activities only.

Sponsorship of activities should be advisory or suggestive in character rather than dictatorial

The character of the sponsorship determines whether an activity is a student organization or just another class. Since the sponsor represents the constituted government of the school and is generally selected by the head of the school, the establishment of a democratic relationship between the sponsor and the membership of an organization requires both understanding and skill. The values inherent in extracurriculum activities for pupils are seldom realized under sponsors of the dictatorial type. It is therefore important that the sponsor function as a counselor or interested friend to the pupils as they strive co-operatively to realize their purposes in the pursuit of common interests.

The purposes of an activity should be strictly adhered to or else the activity should be reorganized so as to make clear the real objectives which the organization seeks to achieve

The recognition of this principle involves a type of administration which many schools have not attempted to provide. It requires (1) that a statement of specific objectives is prerequisite to organization, and (2) that the activities of an organization should be guided by the objectives proposed. The principle in question is essential to the development of a comprehensive program of activities on the basis of pupil interests and needs and to the guidance of pupils in the selection of activities designed to satisfy interests and needs.

Records of pupil participation in activities should be kept by the school as a basis for guidance in the selection of activities and as a means of advisement with respect to vocational and avocational pursuits

Counseling and guidance in the choice of extracurriculum activities are fully as important as in the selection of curriculum fields. But counseling and guidance are dependent on information and information can be made available only through records. It is therefore essential that the school preserve the extracurriculum history of its pupils in order that reliable data may be at hand when guidance is desired.

A close tie-up should be encouraged between extracurriculum activities and the classroom work of pupils

Since extracurriculum activities are an aspect of the total program of education, the line of demarcation between curriculum and extracurriculum activities should become less and less distinct. Some people hold that each type of activity should motivate and enrich the other and that the school which encourages a close relationship between the classroom teachers and the sponsors of activities will thereby improve its service to the pupils. Few schools any longer consider extracurriculum activities as belonging outside the area of general education. The chief difference among schools with respect to the recognition of the principle under discussion is merely the extent to which it is accepted. /

Extracurriculum activities should be closely identified with the activities of local community life

This principle is based on the facts that the school is an important institution in community life and that the life of the school is as real to the pupils as the life of other community institutions, such as home and church. A civic activity in school should therefore be viewed as a civic activity of the local community. Indeed, it is proper to urge that all school activities

should likewise be so regarded. The pupil in a school in which activities are so conceived, thus identifies himself with the processes of community life and acquires a consciousness of membership in community life.

The methods of providing financial support of extracurriculum activities should be determined by school policy rather than by club autonomy

Outstanding schools have long followed this plan. It has invariably resulted in the successful support of all activities and in the elimination of criticism occasioned by mismanagement of funds of individual activities and the demand for frequent assessments and dues. The National Survey of Secondary Education revealed a growing tendency among secondary schools to adopt successful business methods in the administration of extracurriculum finance. The sponsor should exercise a large influence in guiding individual organizations which plan activities that involve expenditures and in seeing that prorata assessments are kept within the means of all members. The administration of the funds after they are collected is the responsibility of the school principal.

Obstacles to the success of extracurriculum activities are not inherent but are the result of inefficient sponsorship or maladministration

Principals and teachers should spend no time in condoning unsatisfactory practices in the administration of activities but should seek to find ways of replacing unsuccessful with successful practices. For guidance in this respect persons in need of aid might consult with profit the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education which reports successful and innovative practices in the organization and administration of extracurriculum activities in outstanding schools, and the bibliography of selected references at the close of the chapter.

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CHAPTER V

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR SCHOOL FACILITIES

THE responsibility of the teacher for school facilities, namely, building, equipment, and supplies, may appear at first thought to be a matter of only minor concern. Such is not the case, for facilities are essential to the conduct of the school. Without adequate material equipment it would be impossible to carry on school. Instruction of large groups of pupils as conducted in a modern school requires commodious classrooms, libraries, gymnasiums, playgrounds, laboratories, and various kinds of educational equipment and supplies. What, then, is the teacher's responsibility for all the material facilities so essential to modern schools?

NATURE OF TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITY

Legal responsibility

The laws of the different states are in little agreement with respect to the responsibility of the teacher for buildings, equipment, and supplies. Very few states have enacted any legislation specifying in detail this responsibility. Evidently, the law-making bodies in the several states have considered the responsibility for school facilities to rest with the local boards of education and have therefore left the delegation of specific duties in property administration to the discretion of the boards. One exception to the foregoing generalization is noted in the laws of

sixteen states,¹ namely, the prohibition imposed on the teacher of acting as an agent in the sale of school supplies. The law of Tennessee is typical with respect to this prohibition.

No . . . teacher of the public schools shall have any pecuniary interest, directly or indirectly, in supplying books, maps, school furniture and apparatus to the public schools of the state, nor shall act as agent for any author, publisher, book-seller, or dealer in any such school furniture or apparatus, or, directly or indirectly, receive any gift, emolument, reward or promise of reward for his influence in recommending or procuring the use of any book, map, or school apparatus or furniture of any kind, in any public school in this State; and any school officer or teacher who shall violate this provision, besides being removed from his post, shall be subject to a penalty of not less than two hundred, nor more than five hundred dollars, . . . provided that nothing in this section shall be construed so as to include authors of books and maps.

Four states have also enacted legislation requiring teachers to account for the school property entrusted to their care;² one of these states makes the destruction of school property by a teacher a statutory cause for which a teacher may be dismissed.³

Since most of the states consider that the responsibility of the teacher for the property of a local school system should be determined by the board of education rather than by legislative action, the teacher must look to the regulations of the local board of education and the instructions of its executive officers for guidance in the performance of duties pertaining to school property.

Responsibility as specified in the rules and regulations of boards of education

Analysis of the rules and regulations adopted by boards of education in 150 cities reveals the nature of the teacher's re-

¹ Earl W. Anderson, *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*, pp. 81-101. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

² Anderson, *ibid.*, p. 86.

³ Anderson, *ibid.*, p. 100.

sponsibility for building, equipment, and supplies. Three types of responsibility for school property are clearly set forth in these regulations, namely, (1) responsibility for its intelligent use, (2) responsibility for its care, and (3) responsibility for its protection from abuse and neglect.

These types of responsibility will receive detailed consideration later in the chapter. In the present connection, it is pertinent merely to point out that boards of education have recognized the importance of material facilities in carrying on the work of the school and have enacted rules and regulations to fix the responsibility of teachers for the efficient use and care of such facilities.

Since the capital investment of the community in building and equipment is large and since a considerable portion of the current school budget each year goes to the maintenance and operation of building and equipment and the purchase of necessary supplies, it is essential that the teacher fully understand and appreciate his responsibility not only for the intelligent use of the facilities thus provided, but also for their proper care and protection. The enactment of specific rules and regulations such as those presented in Table 10 should therefore not be regarded by teachers

TABLE 10. RULES AND REGULATIONS OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN 150 CITIES PERTAINING TO THE RESPONSIBILITY OF TEACHERS FOR SCHOOL FACILITIES *

Responsibility	Frequency
Proper light, ventilation, and temperature in so far as possible . .	92
Use and care of furniture, books, and apparatus in classrooms . . .	77
Reporting defects or injury to building and equipment	35
Seeing that classrooms are neatly kept	35
Reporting to principal inefficient janitorial service	29
Taking necessary precautions to secure health and safety of pupil	23
Periodical inspection of all textbook and permanent supplies used by pupils	15
Imposing fines with consent of principal for damage to school property	15
Closing doors and windows of classroom before leaving at night .	7
Co-operating with principal in keeping school grounds clean	2

* Adapted from L. K. Kiltzke, "Duties of Teachers in City School Systems as Specified by Board Rules and Regulations," pp. 107-19. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934.

as petty restrictions imposed on them by their boards of education but rather as expressions of concern that the investment made by the community in material facilities be justified by the manner in which the facilities are used.

Professional responsibility

As a member of a profession, the teacher has a more important responsibility for school property than that imposed by state law and by school-board rules. The obligation to use the property intelligently as a public trust in the interest of pupils requires of the teacher an attitude toward property which he cannot secure from a study of law and rules. In the past, boards of education and administrative officers have often failed to enlist the co-operation of teachers in the equipping of schools and the care of property. Buildings were planned and equipment and supplies were selected for the use of teachers but the teachers were given no voice in determining the needs which such material facilities should meet. As a result, educational programs of school systems and of individual teachers have had to be carried on with material facilities that were in many respects handicaps rather than aids to teaching.

Teacher participation in planning buildings and selecting supplies

Some boards of education and administrative officers have realized the handicap imposed on the teacher who, as a professional worker, is required to work with material facilities that tend to defeat the educational purposes which he seeks. Accordingly, it is becoming increasingly common to give teachers a voice in the replacement of equipment and in the selection of supplies. If a new building is planned or an old building is remodeled, the teacher's advice is sought in the preparation of specifications for the architectural plans and the teacher's criticism of sketch drawings is invited before the final plans are adopted. In school systems so administered the teacher has

been able to make positive contributions to school planning, especially with respect to the specifications of classrooms.

The responsibility of having a part in the administration of property imposes a professional obligation on the teacher to understand the contributions that property can make to the educational program. It requires the teacher to become proficient (1) in the selection and intelligent use of classroom facilities, (2) in the proper care of equipment and supplies, (3) in the general protection of school property, and (4) in safeguarding pupils from property hazards. /

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE INTELLIGENT USE OF CLASSROOM PROPERTY

Making effective use of classroom facilities

Inasmuch as the greatest interest of the teacher is in the classroom and its facilities, the responsibility is more specific when all or most of the work of the teacher is carried on in a single room than when the work is scattered among a number of rooms, each one of which is used by several teachers. However, the teacher is always responsible for the use made of the classroom and its facilities at the time the property is under his charge even when the room is used by several teachers. Failure to assume this responsibility is a serious professional dereliction which will not long be tolerated in well-administered school systems.

Teacher co-operation in use of common facilities

In schools organized according to the platoon or departmental plan, where many more pupils use a classroom and its equipment and supplies than under the home-room teacher plan, it is more difficult to fix responsibility for the improper use of school property and supplies. The teacher must therefore seek the full co-operation of the pupils in the intelligent use of such material facilities and must be keenly observant to see that the co-operation expected is given.

The same kind of personal supervision must be practiced when the teacher becomes responsible for the use of some common room, such as the auditorium, gymnasium, little theatre, library, or room for visual instruction. These rooms usually suffer from abuse to a greater extent than do those used by one class under the supervision of a single teacher.

Rating teachers on use of facilities

In some school systems the teacher is rated on the character of attention given to the care of classroom property under his charge, the purpose being to fix responsibility for the protection of the material facilities of the classroom and to make the teacher aware of the importance of good school housekeeping. Some teachers are attentive to the orderly appearance of the classroom and the proper care of the equipment used by the pupils. They enlist the co-operation of the pupils both in the protection of the classroom and its equipment and in the efficient and economical use of supplies. Other teachers are inclined to neglect school housekeeping. They fail to enlist the co-operation of their pupils and as a result the classroom and equipment suffer from careless and inconsiderate treatment and supplies are needlessly wasted. A low rating on attention to the details of classroom business should be sufficient to improve the latter type of teacher. There should be little necessity of extended in-service training to make any teacher aware of his responsibility for the property entrusted to his care.

Regulating the illumination of the classroom

One aspect of physical equipment is sometimes overlooked by teachers. The teacher is responsible for regulating the illumination of the classroom. Proper lighting contributes much to the welfare of pupils. Many teachers do not appreciate the fact that the human eye evolved under conditions of outdoor illumination which are very different from the conditions provided in most homes and schools. They do not understand the further

fact that when the eye is compelled to work for considerable periods of time under indoor conditions of inadequate illumination fatigue is induced and impairment of vision may result. This statement is supported by data on the increase in eye defects as the young advance from infancy to maturity. Only about 3 per cent of the infant population are handicapped by impaired vision. By the time the kindergarten is reached the percentage has increased to 7. In the elementary school the percentage rises to 9; in the high school, to 24; and in the college, to 40.¹ This rapid increase in defective vision with age must be regarded as an unnatural development, since people who live out-of-doors show no such percentage of visual impairment.

Factors affecting illumination

The question of educational importance with respect to illumination is, "What can be done to prevent visual fatigue and increase in visual defects among school children?" The answer is simple: improve the lighting conditions under which children are required to use their eyes. In recent years the problem of proper school lighting has received much attention. Classrooms are now constructed so that natural light is admitted only from one side and the glass area provided is usually not less than 18 per cent of the floor area for rooms in which the windows begin three feet above the floor and not less than 16 per cent when the windows start four feet above the floor. It is also desirable that the window area begin as near the rear wall of the classroom as possible and stop from four to eight feet from the front wall. This latter requirement is made necessary by the fact that pupils usually are seated so that they face the front of the room. The section of wall without windows in the front greatly reduces the angle of glare.

¹ Matthew Luckiesh, *Seeing and Human Welfare*. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Co., 1934, and John O. Kraehenbuehl, *Problems in Building Illumination*. Urbana, Illinois: Circular, No. 29, Engineering Experiment Station, University of Illinois, 1937.

The construction of the classroom does not always conform to the standards described. The teacher who is acquainted with these standards is helped in performing his duties by knowledge of ideal conditions. He can utilize such structural and other facilities as are at hand in the effort to change conditions that fall short of the ideal.

The problem of proper illumination for classrooms is not fully solved even when the standards of window placement and window area are met. The position of the windows with respect to the sun or to objects which obstruct or reflect its rays of light presents a serious problem. The amount of light admitted to the classroom may be greatly reduced because of outside obstructions or increased because of reflection.

Further complications are created in the regulation of classroom illumination by general weather conditions. For example, teachers employed in cities which have a high percentage of cloudy or partly-cloudy days must give considerable attention to artificial lighting, whereas teachers in cities which have a high percentage of clear days may have to regulate window shades frequently to eliminate exterior glare.

While it is the responsibility of the superintendent and the board of education to see that the construction of windows and the installation of interior lighting in the classrooms are as nearly correct as possible, it is the duty of the teacher to use all the facilities available. The artificial lighting should be either indirect or semidirect and the lights should be arranged so that an even distribution of light can be obtained when necessary to supplement light from the windows. The regulation of the amount of artificial light required at any given time and also the adjustment of the shades to prevent glare require attention throughout the school day. The teacher must therefore cultivate a sensitiveness to the proper illumination of the classroom as a means of securing the proper intensity of light to make possible easy reading for pupils, and of preventing visual fatigue and eye strain.

Some school systems have attempted to stabilize classroom

lighting through automatic light control equipment, consisting of a phototube or "electric eye" connected with a relay which turns the switch of the lighting system on or off as the need for light is registered. The advantage of automatic control, even though it adds slightly to the cost of installation, is that lighting conditions are maintained at a constant level.

Further improvement in classroom illumination is obtained by the installation of lighting fixtures which permit the use of fluorescent tubes. The expense of installation is considerable but this expense is compensated for in the long run because the cost of current is greatly reduced, the lighting efficiency of the fluorescent tube being about 2.3 times that of the best tungsten filament lamp. If the expense of installation can be staggered over a period of time, greatly improved lighting can be provided for classrooms at little, if any, increase in the cost.

Standards of classroom illumination

As an aid to the teacher in the control of classroom illumination the following standards have been determined and are recommended. The amount of light suggested for classroom illumination is a minimum of from 8 to 10 foot-candles. Some recommend from 12 to 25.¹ A foot-candle is the amount of light shed by a standard candle at a distance of one foot. Through the use of a simple and inexpensive instrument called the light meter, illumination in various parts of a classroom can be measured in terms of foot-candle units. If the illumination of any part of the classroom is below the normal required for comfortable work, artificial lights should be brought into use.

The total amount of artificial light that should be available in classrooms for dark days should be three times the number of square feet of floor area of the room. A room 20 feet wide and 30 feet long should have available 1,800 watts, that is, nine lamps of 200 watts or six lamps of 300 watts for use as needed. The wiring of the lights should be planned so that half the lamps,

¹ John O. Kraehenbuehl, *ibid.*, p. 13.

namely, those farthest from the windows, can be used independently of the other half. The lamps should be inside-frosted and enclosed in 16-inch indirect or semi-indirect fixtures, and should hang 3 to 4 feet from the ceiling.

Responsibility of teacher for control of window shades

The teacher must assume full responsibility for the regulation of the shades as a means of control over the lighting of the classroom from the windows. Since the problem is to secure as much natural light as possible without excessive brightness or glare, the shades must not be drawn so as to obstruct the amount of needed light available from the outside and must be properly adjusted to provide protection from direct or reflected rays when necessary. Venetian blinds or opaque shades fastened halfway from the bottom of the windows and adjustable both up and down are most serviceable. The light received from the upper half of the window is generally best; the light from the lower half is more likely to produce glare. It is therefore obvious that the old-fashioned type of window shade fastened at the top of the window does not lend itself to effective lighting control.

The teacher before beginning the work of a class period should take note of the illumination of the room and should regulate shades or provide the needed amount of supplementary artificial light which conditions appear to require. Even during the class period the teacher should be prepared to meet sudden or gradual changes in lighting conditions.

Classrooms with southern exposure require greatest attention on the part of the teacher. Those with eastern or western exposures require only half as much attention. Classrooms with northern exposure require little attention to shades, but require the use of artificial lighting more frequently than do those with the other types of exposure. Hence, when a building has a number of different kinds of exposures to natural light, the problem of each teacher is specific, depending on the exposure of the particular classroom.

Controlling the ventilation of the classroom

Most modern school buildings are provided with systems of mechanical heating and ventilation. In buildings so equipped the heat and ventilation are regulated automatically when the system is in use. On mild days, when it is unnecessary to provide heat, the teacher must rely upon windows in the classroom for adequate ventilation. When the system is in operation, the opening of windows or doors interferes with its proper performance. If the heat or ventilation of a particular classroom is considered unsatisfactory, the teacher should report the condition to the principal rather than attempt to regulate the difficulty. The successful operation of a mechanical system of heating and ventilation depends upon the engineer in charge. He alone possesses the technical knowledge to make the necessary adjustments.

Mechanical ventilation

Mechanical systems of ventilation and heating are of two kinds, namely, (1) central-fan system and (2) unit heating plus the ventilator system. In schools that use the central-fan system fresh air is admitted from the outside and is conducted through a chamber containing sprays of water as a means of washing the air before it is passed over the heating coils to be warmed. The air is then conveyed to a mixing chamber where it is properly tempered before it is distributed through ducts to the classrooms. The air is usually circulated through the classroom at the rate of ten to thirty cubic feet per pupil per minute.¹ The temperature of the classroom is recorded by the thermostat which regulates the damper in the mixing chamber, thus providing the correct proportion of warm and cold air. If the damper fails to work properly, the air admitted to the classroom may be either too warm or too cold. On becoming aware of the condition, the teacher should report the matter promptly to the office of the

¹ Some states have enacted legislation requiring thirty cubic feet per pupil per minute.

principal instead of trying to regulate the temperature by opening windows and doors or by tinkering with the thermostat.

School buildings in northern latitudes where sub-zero temperature is not uncommon in winter months cannot be adequately heated by the tempered air supplied through the ventilation system. The additional heat required in the classrooms is supplied through radiators which receive steam from the central plant. The radiators are also under control of the room thermostat. The dual arrangement is referred to as the "split system"; that is, the functions of heating and ventilation are split. This system has grown in favor in recent years, especially in the northern states.

In the schools which do not have an automatic central ventilating system but are equipped with the unit ventilator system each classroom is an independent unit of heating and ventilation. The fresh air is received through a ventilator placed under a window. The air is forced by a motor-driven fan through the coils of a radiator that receives steam from the central plant. The air when warmed is circulated through the room and then taken out through exhaust flues. Each unit ventilator in a classroom is under thermostatic control, although the mechanical control can be stopped at any time by the teacher without interfering with the operation of any other unit in the room or with the operation of units in any other classroom. The unit system of ventilation provides greater flexibility in the adjustment of temperature and ventilation to individual rooms than does the central-fan system.

Gravity ventilation

Schools which have not installed mechanical ventilation depend upon gravity for the change in the air of the classroom. Such schools usually have exhaust ducts opening out of each classroom. These ducts convey the air which has been admitted through windows or doors out of the classroom after it has been used. When heated air is admitted to the classroom or when the

air of the classroom becomes heated through contact with the radiators of the heating system, it tends to rise and pass out through the vents which have been constructed to facilitate air movement. The movement of the air is produced by the differences in its specific gravity caused by differences in temperature of air at lower and upper levels.

The success of gravity ventilation in a school depends upon the teacher who is partly responsible for the rate of the air change through window control. Failure to admit air from outside the classroom or the admission of too much air may result in poor ventilation. Either condition may cause discomfort to pupils and may contribute to respiratory illness. Despite the personal equation in teacher control of ventilation, it was found in an inquiry carried on in Chicago ¹ that there was less respiratory illness among pupils enrolled in schools with gravity ventilation than in schools using mechanical systems. The findings did not establish the superiority of the gravity method, but indicated rather that the conditions found were caused by too rapid circulation of air in the schools equipped with mechanical systems.

Temperature and relative humidity

In winter months classroom temperature is not always a safe guide to the comfort of pupils. If pupils complain of feeling cold when the room temperature is approximately normal, that is, around 68 degrees, the cause is generally low humidity. This condition is common in schools which are heated with warm air, unless moisture is added when the air is brought into the heating and ventilating system. If the relative humidity² is less than 20 per cent when the temperature is normal, the air absorbs

¹ R. L. C. Butsch, "A Comparative Study of the Effects of Different Types of School-Building Ventilation upon the Health of the Pupils," p. 289. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1929.

² The relative humidity of the air is the ratio of the amount of moisture it contains to the maximum amount it could contain at the same temperature and pressure. The proportion is usually expressed as a percentage.

moisture from the skin of persons in the classroom with great avidity, causing them to feel cold. When the relative humidity is satisfactory in an artificially heated room few pupils complain of discomfort if the temperature is as low as 64 degrees. On the contrary the room temperature may have to be as high as 77 degrees to maintain comfort if the relative humidity is excessively low.¹

Some school systems undertake to control the humidity as well as the temperature of classrooms. Water vapor is introduced into the air during its passage from the heating coils to the classrooms. Unit systems provide basins for water as a means of raising the percentage of humidity. If the relative humidity is still too low, water vapor can be added to the air of individual classrooms with direct heating systems through the use of a special radiator valve that permits the escape of steam into the room or through the use of electric humidifiers in classrooms with indirect heating systems.

During the spring and autumn months, when artificial heating is not required, the humidity of the outside air determines the humidity of the air in the classrooms and cannot be controlled. On extremely hot days high humidity contributes to the discomfort of pupils because the evaporation of perspiration is less than it is when the air is dry.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR CLASSROOM SEATING

The teacher as a rule must accept the seating found in an established classroom. Any needed adjustments in seating must usually be effected with present equipment rather than through replacement. Occasionally, a teacher succeeds in securing a change in classroom seating, as for example, the substitution of tables and chairs in a primary room for fixed seating, but, gen

¹ C. E. Reeves and H. S. Ganders, *School Building Management*, p. 239. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University 1928.

erally speaking, changes in classroom seating are difficult to secure. New seating, when it is purchased by a school system, is generally used in new schools. The evidence seems to show that there is very little wholesale replacement of old seating with new. Occasionally, in certain school systems a few classrooms are equipped with adjustable seats as an experiment in improved seating.

That boards of education have given little thought to the responsibility of the teacher for classroom seating is revealed by the fact that only two rules on the subject were found in the published rules and regulations of 150 cities.¹ In one school system the teacher was required to adapt the adjustable seats to the size of the pupils. One other system in the list of 150 cities was found to have a rule requiring the teacher to have the pupils lift the seats at the close of the day. Evidently, this rule was adopted to lighten the work of the janitor, rather than to serve the needs of the pupils.

Adjustment of classroom seating

Different plans have been adopted by boards of education to provide for some adjustment of seating to pupils. For example, certain school systems that use seating fixed to the floor equip each classroom with two or more sizes of seats. Some systems use seating fixed to the floor but adjustable as to height. Others use movable seating of the adjustable type; still other school systems use movable seating of the non-adjustable type, but of more than one size in a classroom. All the types of seating specified make possible some adjustment to pupils if the teacher assumes responsibility for helping each pupil select a suitable seat or for seeing that the seat is fitted to his needs. In general, it has been found that the responsibility for securing seating adjustments rests largely with the teacher.

Seating adjustment by the teacher to be effective requires knowledge of seating standards as well as ability to determine

¹ Klitzke, *op. cit.*, p. 115.

with considerable accuracy the needs of the individual pupil. The old notion that the pupil can decide the correct seating condition by his temporary "feeling of comfort" has been shown to be unreliable.¹ The pupil must be made conscious of the factors that contribute to permanent comfort in school seating before his "feeling of comfort" becomes a reliable criterion in adjusting the seat to his needs. The factors, according to Bennett,² that determine comfort when a seat is used by a pupil for a considerable period of time are the following: (1) The seat should not be high enough to exert any pressure under the thighs at or near the front edge of the seat when the feet are resting squarely on the floor. (2) It is generally desirable that there should be a clearance of about three inches between the knee angle and the edge of the seat. (3) The desk is of proper height if the writing surface provides an easy rest for the forearms of the pupil when seated correctly in writing position. (4) The relation of desk to seat is correct when a plumb line dropped from the edge of the desk strikes the seat approximately two inches from its edge. (5) The position of the seated pupil and the seat occupied are correct when the pupil sitting well back and erect has lumbar support that will permit the complete relaxation of all trunk muscles. ✓

If the seating equipment of a classroom is such that permanent comfort is not possible for pupils, the teacher should notify the principal of the school and request that an investigation be made to determine the need for replacement. An investigation of the seating in use in the city of Grand Rapids, Michigan, several years ago showed that (1) seats should be lower in all grades, (2) seats should be shorter in most cases, (3) backs of seats should be lower at the top and higher at the bottom, (4) tops of desks should be lower, and (5) spacing of desk and seat should be closer.³

¹ Henry Eastman Bennett, *School Posture and Seating*, p. 221. Chicago: American Seating Co., 1928.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 122-213.

³ *Survey of Seating in Grand Rapids Elementary Schools*. Grand Rapids, Michigan, 1929.

Quadrant arrangement of classroom seating

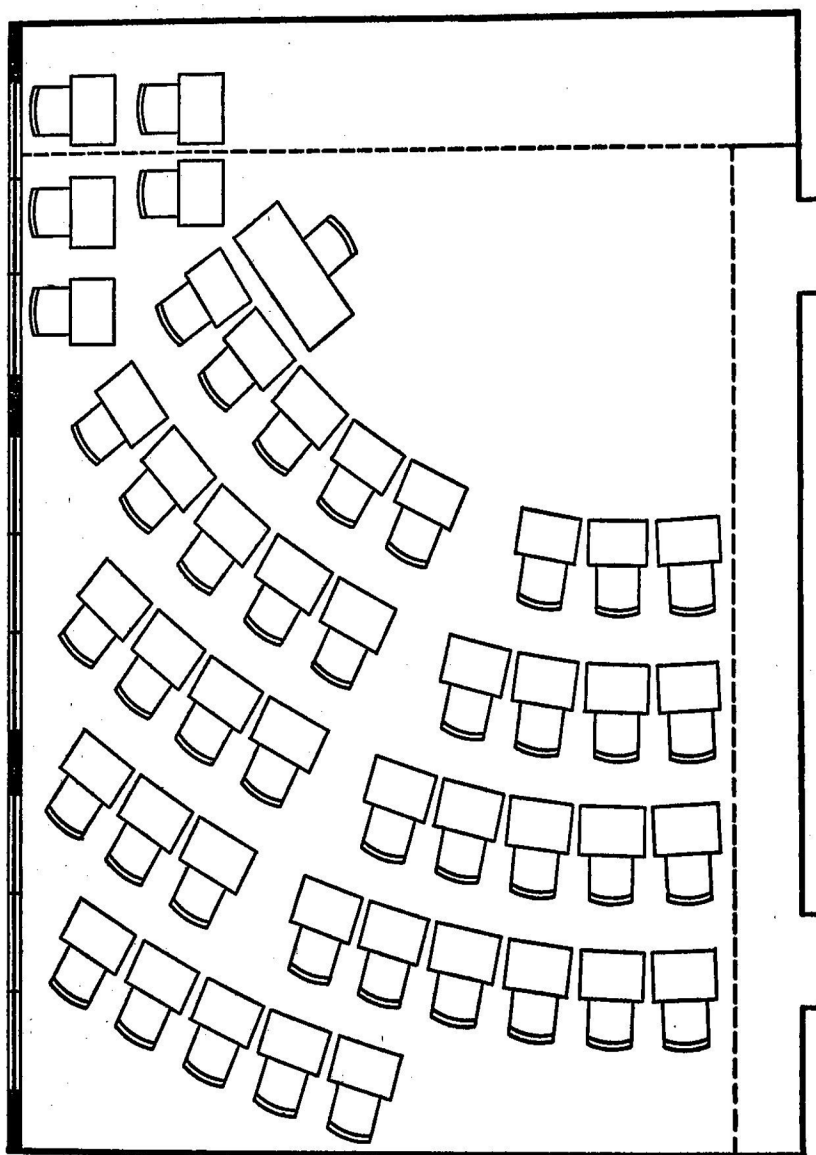
Since glare presents a serious problem for a considerable number of pupils in most classrooms in which the arrangement of the seating is in rows parallel to the lighting area, the teacher can eliminate the condition in classrooms equipped with movable seating by adjusting the seats in the form of the quadrant shown in Figure 1.

In classrooms in which the seating is fixed to the floor, permission to change the plan of seating must be secured from the principal. It is better to have seats and desks fastened to two strips of wood of required length instead of to the floor. This plan permits the seats and desks attached to the strips to be shifted as a unit about the classroom. If it is desired the units can be arranged in rows and at any preferred angle to the windows.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE CARE OF SCHOOL PROPERTY

Care of building and equipment

Teachers in one-room schools have the same responsibility for the care of school facilities in general as do principals of local schools or superintendents of city systems. In town and city schools the responsibility of the teacher is restricted very largely to the classroom and its equipment. In neither case does the responsibility of the teacher for the care of school property consist in performing janitorial work, but rather in safeguarding the school plant and its equipment from destructive treatment and unnecessary wear. The rules and regulations of city boards of education frequently require that the teacher shall report any observed defect in building or equipment or injury to property and shall co-operate with school officials in maintaining standards of building cleanliness and of proper repair.



**FIGURE I. QUADRANT ARRANGEMENT OF SEATS IN
A CLASSROOM TO AVOID GLARE**

Plan suggested by Henry Eastman Bennett in *School Posture and Seating*,
op. cit., p. 252.

Securing co-operation of pupils in care of school property

The teacher should strive to develop in his pupils the right attitude towards school property and an appreciation for its use. The accomplishment of the results desired will require more than casual mention to pupils of the fact that they should exercise care in the use of school building and equipment. Constant exhortation regarding the proper care of school property also fails to secure the desired results. The co-operative participation of pupils must be enlisted in the protection and proper care of public property as a civic obligation. The basis of such enlistment naturally is an understanding of the cost of school property, the reasons of the community for providing such property at public expense, and the obligations of protection resting on those who benefit from its use. The responsibility for periodic inventories of school property should be shared with the pupils and the occasion utilized when necessary to provide instruction pertaining to the obligations of pupils about the care of property.

Much will be accomplished in the way of appropriate use of school property if the pride of the pupils is aroused in its appearance. Appreciation on the part of teacher and pupils who have benefited from the use of excellent school facilities can be transmitted to entering pupils and will be reflected in their attitude toward the school and its care.

A much-quoted example of an effort to create the right attitude on the part of pupils toward their school building and grounds is that contained in the handbook for students published by the Wichita High School, Wichita, Kansas:

Did you ever see anything more attractive than our school grounds? The city has given us a beautiful place in which to work, and abundant space in which to have a good time. May we not keep it so? There has grown up a tradition in Wichita High School, that every student is a self-appointed custodian of the beauty of our school home. If students are thoughtless enough to damage the building or shrubbery or to walk across the lawn, they are likely to be reminded by some other student who has been here longer that that simply "isn't done" at

Wichita High School. If someone not connected with the school takes liberties with the beauty of our school property, he is also reminded that he is expected to be a better citizen. Many people have remarked at the fine care shown the school building and grounds. The students who have been here are proud of it and wish to keep it so. The new ones soon catch the spirit, if they have not already caught it.¹ /

Caring for educational supplies

The teacher's responsibility for the care of supplies such as paper and pencils varies according to the policy of the local school system concerning supplies. Some boards of education furnish relatively few kinds of educational supplies without cost to the pupil. In school systems so administered, the teacher's responsibilities for supplies are usually light. The parent who furnishes the money for the purchase of his child's supplies is the one chiefly concerned with the problem of the care given to such supplies. Yet the teacher can do much by way of co-operation with the parent in training the pupil in the economical use and proper care of supplies.

In certain school systems virtually all educational supplies are furnished by the board of education and are considered the property of the board until the supplies have been used up. Here, the responsibility of the teacher for the care of supplies is both large and direct. The teacher must account for the quota of supplies distributed to his classroom and must see that the supplies are issued to the pupils and are economically and appropriately used. The administration of supplies in such school systems makes a heavy demand on the teacher, although the advantages to the teacher in having available at all times an adequate stock of educational supplies outweigh the administrative burden.

In order to reduce to the minimum the demands on the time and attention of the teacher in administering supplies, school principals usually undertake to systematize the ordering, distributing, and record-keeping of educational supplies. Orders

¹ *Handbook of the Wichita High School*, p. 12. Wichita, Kansas, 1928-29.

for supplies from the teachers are called for on fixed dates and are filled by the principal at fixed times. Forms are provided which serve both as order blanks and as records of the supplies distributed to individual teachers. The records are used in summarizing the amount of supplies used by the teacher for the semester or year. The information thus made available to the principal serves as a partial basis in appraising the efficiency of the teacher in the care of supplies.

The responsibility of the teacher for the care of supplies is not fully discharged unless an earnest effort is made to develop a proper regard on the part of the pupils for the supplies furnished by the board of education. This regard should show itself in economical use and in efficient care of such supplies. For the teacher to permit pupils to develop wasteful habits in the use of free supplies is a disservice which should not long be tolerated.

Co-operating with janitors in the care of school property

Some teachers consider the care of school property the exclusive duty of custodians and therefore do not take the trouble to develop in themselves or in their pupils an interest in the appearance of buildings and grounds. Apparently these teachers do not realize that the participation of pupils in the care of school property is essential if classrooms, corridors, library, auditorium, stairways, and school grounds are to be kept in first-class condition. Custodial staffs, however efficient, encounter many hindrances in their efforts to render high-grade services. Many of these hindrances are the result of carelessness and thoughtlessness on the part of pupils. Waste paper thrown on the floors, marked walls, desks defaced with pencils and knives, lockers left open, and carelessness with ink or chalk make unnecessary janitorial work.

If the teacher never gives attention to any of these hindrances to good housekeeping and does nothing to develop habits of orderliness in the use of equipment and supplies or to cultivate attitudes of respect for public property, the chances are large that

his lack of sensitiveness to such deficiencies in the pupils will also be reflected in the attitude of the custodial staff. It is, of course, not the responsibility of the teacher to have the pupils engage in janitorial work merely to assist the custodians in keeping the school building clean. However, enlisting the participation of pupils in eliminating the hindrances for which the pupils are responsible, will greatly encourage higher standards of janitorial service by the custodial staff.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE PROTECTION OF SCHOOL PROPERTY

The protection of local school property is generally regarded as the responsibility of the principal in city school systems. The principal as the head of a school is free to share this responsibility with his teachers. If he chooses to do so, he can hold the teacher responsible for reporting to him any damages to school property that the teacher may observe. In the case of property used regularly by the teacher, he can call for periodic inspections and reports or he can delegate the responsibility to the teacher and check to see how well the responsibility is discharged.

The position taken by many principals and the one which most nearly accords with the modern conception of school administration is that the teacher is jointly responsible with the principal for the protection of school property, each within the range of his particular control.

Some teachers regard the control of the building as being the specific responsibility of the principal and assume no responsibility for what happens outside the classroom, even in the absence of the principal. Such an attitude, if shared by the other teachers of a school staff, is demoralizing to school control. The teacher as a member of an administrative organization must be prompt to assume responsibility at any point when it becomes necessary to protect school property. For example, in the absence of the principal, the boys of the school might be found by a

teacher to be using the gymnasium floor for practice without changing from street to gymnasium shoes. In a short time the floor can be seriously damaged unless the practice is stopped. It is clearly the duty of the teacher in this situation to act with the authority of the principal.

Responsibility for reporting damages

The rules and regulations of 35 of the 150 cities referred to in an earlier section of this chapter specify that the teacher is responsible for reporting to the principal any damages to school property which occur under the teacher's observation. The fact that no such rule exists in the other 115 cities studied does not mean that teachers in these 115 cities are not expected to report damages. The failure to fix the responsibility by rule can be explained by the fact that some of the boards of education probably considered the responsibility to be established by tradition and assumed reiteration to be unnecessary. Other boards may have thought that such responsibility should be explained by the school principal and that the matter belonged more properly to administrative definition than to board legislation. The latter interpretation is partially substantiated by regulations adopted by 15 of the school systems, specifying that any fines imposed by the teacher on pupils for damage to school property must have the approval of the principal.

The evidence available on the views of boards of education regarding the responsibility of the teacher for damage to property warrants the conclusion that the teacher is not responsible to the extent of having to replace damaged property. On the contrary, responsibility for the protection of property is regarded by boards of education as fully discharged when the teacher reports damage or, with the approval of the principal, imposes a fine on the pupil who has caused the damage.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR THE PROTECTION OF PUPILS FROM BUILDING HAZARDS

The problem of protecting children from school-building hazards received little attention prior to 1890. Fire protection in schools up to that time was a responsibility which depended very largely on local boards of education. If a local school building was regarded as a fire trap by a local administrative officer, the methods of protecting the children in case of fire were left largely to his discretion. Fire inspection, as we know it to-day, was then unknown. The first state to enact legislation designed to give fire protection to children in public and private schools was Rhode Island. This state enacted a law in 1890 requiring public-school buildings, seminaries, academies, and colleges to be equipped with fire escapes. Very little was done by the other states to safeguard children in public schools from the hazard of fire until after 1900, when several states began to give attention to the problem. City school systems had recognized the dangers of fire in public schools long before state legislatures undertook to provide state inspection of public buildings or to require in schools fire drills and other protective measures, such as the installation of fire escapes, fire extinguishers, and exit doors opening outward.

Public opinion regarding the hazards of fire in school buildings became very active following the Collinwood disaster on March 4, 1908. On that morning between ten and eleven o'clock, while the school was in session, a fire broke out in the Lake View School of Collinwood, a suburb of Cleveland, Ohio. The janitor discovered smoke coming through the crevices in the stairway at the front of the building. He sounded a fire alarm and the teachers are said to have given the fire-drill signals. The children in the rooms on the first floor of the building were safely ushered out, but the children on the upper floors became panic-stricken and made a mad rush for the rear stairway exits. At the bottom of the rear stairway landing on the first floor, a few feet from the

outer entrance to the building, was a frame partition which created a vestibule between the partition and the outer doors. In the mad rush for safety the children became wedged against the inner side of this partition and were found there jammed in a heap by early rescuers on the scene. So tightly were the children wedged that the rescuers could offer but little assistance. Consequently, two teachers and 173 pupils sacrificed their lives as a result of being housed in a building which did not provide adequate protection from the hazard of fire.

So much publicity was given to this great holocaust that public opinion became active in certain sections of the country to secure legislation designed to prevent the loss of life from unavoidable school fires. By 1915, 14 states had enacted laws requiring the schools to conduct fire drills. These laws were followed by enactments requiring the public inspection of schools and other public buildings in which large numbers of people were housed at a time. Today, virtually all the states have enacted laws designed to prevent fire hazards and to protect the children in public schools from the dangers of fire. Everyone feels the importance of this protective legislation. Thirty-two states require that school-building construction be of a noncombustible type; 32 states require that doors providing entrance open outward; 41 states require that fire escapes be provided; 16 states require that doors providing entrance remain unlocked while buildings are occupied; 18 states require that fire escapes be of special construction; 23 states require that stairways be of special construction; 24 states require that fire drills be held at least monthly; 28 states require that local authorities inspect buildings and see that laws governing fire prevention and safety are enforced.

Responsibility for prevention of fires

In addition to the requirements enacted into laws, boards of education in many cities have adopted specific regulations for the guidance of principals and teachers in the observance of precautions for the safety of school children while in school

buildings. A study of the published rules and regulations in 130 cities¹ reveals that teachers are not only expected to conduct fire drills when fire signals are given but that they are held responsible for instructing their pupils in orderly participation in such drills. Furthermore, teachers are expected to co-operate with the principal in the elimination of hazards, such as the accumulation of waste in closets and lockers which might result in spontaneous fires, the blocking of aisles needed for the free passage of pupils in withdrawing from classrooms, and the keeping of inflammable materials in classrooms in protective metal containers. Several additional regulations of less frequency than those already mentioned are shown in Table II, which lists the regulations most commonly found in the published rules of boards of education in cities.

Concern for the safety of pupils

The rules and regulations of the boards of education fail to deal with many matters that the teacher ought clearly to understand about the hazards of fire in the particular building in which he is employed. For example, the teacher should know the nature of the construction of the building and the rating of the fire department in the local town or city by the Fire Underwriters. If the school building is of fireproof construction or slow-burning construction and the rating of the fire-fighting facilities of the local fire department is high, the hazards to school children from fire are greatly reduced. The great concern of the teacher, then, is the prevention of panic on the part of the pupils in the case of an outbreak of fire. If the school building is of frame or combustible construction and the fire rating of the community is low, the teacher must be fully alert to all the avenues of escape from the school building in case of fire and must strive to perfect the efficiency of the fire drills both in speed and control.

¹ C. R. Shanner, "Regulations Pertaining to Health, Hygiene, and Safety in City School Systems," pp. 73-74. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1935.

TABLE II. NUMBER OF REGULATIONS OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION
PERTAINING TO SAFETY IN 130 CITIES *

Regulation	Number
Fire drills must be conducted periodically.....	74
Instruction must be given in the proper methods of conducting fire drills.....	29
Combustible material must not be allowed to collect.....	25
Fire escapes must be kept in proper order.....	21
Exit doors must be kept unlocked during school hours and passage ways unobstructed.....	13
Precaution must be taken against fire hazards.....	12
Metal containers shall be used for all inflammable substances...	7
Pupils must be trained in performing certain duties during fire drills.....	4
Rules of fire department shall be carried out.....	4
Special provisions shall be made for disabled children during fire drills.....	2

* Adapted from Shanner, *ibid.*, pp. 73-74.

Some school buildings contain water lines with hose and fire extinguishers hung in strategic positions for use in extinguishing interior fires. Naturally, each teacher should understand such equipment and be proficient in its use. It is not asking too much that the teacher insist on knowing the condition of the equipment and on learning through demonstration how to use the equipment in case of fire.

Protecting pupils from accidents while at school

Examination of the published rules and regulations of city boards of education also revealed considerable concern on the part of these officials for the general safety of children while at school. Enactments were found in a number of the public schools warning the principals, teachers, and janitors against allowing children to bring weapons to school and prohibiting the throwing of missiles on the school grounds which might endanger the safety of children or result in unnecessary damage to property.

Accidents in the use of school equipment increase as the pupils advance from the kindergarten through the elementary school and into the secondary school. Courses in shops, home e

nomics, vocational agriculture, and the sciences that require individual or group laboratory work subject pupils to certain dangers. General precautions should be taken and particular steps to insure that dangerous machinery is properly guarded, that goggles are furnished for pupils using lathes and forges, and that appropriate protection is provided in all kinds of laboratory work. It is also the responsibility of the teacher to report to the principal all potential hazards to the pupils in the use of school equipment, to request adequate mechanical protection for the pupils in the use of such equipment, and to supervise the pupils carefully as a means of preventing accidents through their carelessness or neglect.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL PROPERTY

Since the responsibility of the teacher for school property in the past has generally been considered to pertain to its use, protection, and care, little has been expected in the way of initiative for the development or improvement of building, equipment, and supplies. Obviously, boards of education and their executive officers have had little confidence in the ability of the teacher to make worth-while contributions to property improvement. The assumption that has been generally accepted may have resulted from the low professional status of the teacher in former years. Conditions have changed greatly, especially in city systems, within recent years.

Many members of the teaching staff have taken courses in educational administration and some are preparing themselves for administrative positions. These individuals may be capable of offering suggestions for the improvement of building, equipment, and supplies that may equal in merit the best ideas of administrative officers. It is also possible that many teachers through reading and reflection have acquired insight with respect to the material needs of schools. which if given expression and

taken into consideration in the formulation of policies would result in notable improvements.

Responsibility for requesting improvements

While it is the specific responsibility of administrative officers to formulate for the consideration of the board of education policies pertaining to the improvement and development of buildings, equipment, and supplies, it does not follow that the teacher who is held responsible for the use of these facilities should have no voice in the determination of the policies. Wise administrators should ascertain the views of the teachers on all such matters and should invite suggestions from them in formulating recommendations for submission to the board. Not all administrative officers are disposed to counsel with the teachers in the consideration of improvements. When the teacher must work in school systems so administered, what is his responsibility for property improvement or development? The answer might be "none," since no responsibility of the type is specified in state law or in local rules. Professional responsibility requires, however, that the teacher submit for the consideration of the proper officials requests in writing for improvements and developments in building, equipment, and supplies needed in making the most efficient use of such facilities.

The results accomplished by the teacher in instruction are often determined to a considerable extent by the kind of equipment and supplies provided by the board of education, not to mention the building in which the efforts of the teacher must be carried on. If any or all of these material facilities constitute a handicap in the attainment of desirable results for the pupils, the teacher is guilty of professional dereliction if he fails to report the needs for improvement when the opportunity is provided or fail to take the initiative in suggesting improvements in those cases where the opportunity is not provided.

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CHAPTER VI

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR SCHOOL FINANCE

THE accepted policy of school officials in times past required the teacher to assume little, if any, responsibility for matters of school finance. Indeed, most board members and probably most superintendents of schools, if interrogated regarding the problem, would have replied that school finance does not concern the teacher, holding that the responsibilities for finance belong to the board of education, city officials, board of budget estimates and expenditures, the superintendent of schools, and financial experts.

RELATION OF TEACHER TO SCHOOL FINANCE

The view expressed in the foregoing paragraph would probably have continued to reflect the prevailing attitude of school officials if everything had gone well with respect to school support. If approval of budget requests for the schools could have been secured merely for the asking and citizens had not questioned the cost of schools, it is doubtful whether the traditional attitude would have changed. The economic conditions of the decade of the 1930's have altered very materially the situation which formerly existed. Taxpayers' associations came into existence during the decade and made urgent requests that rates of taxation and assessments on property be greatly reduced. Strong pressure was brought to bear on all tax-spending bodies with the re-

sult that these bodies found the sources of income seriously curtailed before they were scarcely aware of what had happened. A public that had almost invariably without protest acceded to the budget requests of the schools now became critical of school levies and expenditures. Drastic retrenchment in school costs was demanded and pressure was exerted to enforce the demands.

When school officials began to study the cause of the critical attitude of the public they discovered that the background of information of the majority of citizens about the schools was very inadequate. Furthermore, the lack of understanding of the tax problems of state and local units led citizens to join with selfish interests in an effort to reduce the amount of school support. Taxpayers' associations have succeeded through strong pressure in obtaining large reductions in property assessments, often amounting to as much as 50 per cent. Likewise, they have been able to secure reductions in tax rates in some cases through legislation and in others through pressure on local tax-levying bodies. As a result public revenue has been so greatly reduced that serious emergencies have been created in many school systems.

When officials began to take stock of the situation and to seek a solution to the problems confronting the schools, it quickly became apparent that teachers are in general no better informed about the purposes of public education and the problems of its support than is the average citizen. Because teachers know so little about public finance, the instruction which should have been provided for citizens when they were pupils in the public schools either has been neglected or has failed to function. The evidence seems to indicate that teachers as a class, however well qualified in academic and professional fields, are not adequately prepared to deal intelligently with community problems, especially the problems relating to public finance.

DUTIES OF TEACHER FOR SCHOOL FINANCE

The laws of virtually all the states are silent with respect to the responsibilities of the teacher or school finance. The power to impose such responsibilities therefore rests with boards of education in local units. If the board members of a school unit employing a single teacher desire to do so, they can make the teacher responsible for preparing the budget, for keeping the school accounts, and for handling petty cash. The teacher has under such conditions the status of an administrative officer as well as that of instructor. In school units employing many teachers, duties pertaining to finance are generally performed by administrative officers. If the teacher is expected to assume any responsibilities for school finance the responsibilities are generally specified in rules and regulations of boards of education or in the instructions of administrative officers.

Duties specified in school-board regulations

Analysis of the regulations of school boards pertaining to the teacher's responsibilities for finance reveals one of the reasons for the teacher's inadequacy in dealing with this problem. Only five regulations that could possibly be construed as relating to the teacher's responsibility for school finance were found in the enactments of boards of education in 150 cities. These regulations were: (1) shall not receive compensation for private instruction of pupils enrolled in public schools; (2) shall not purchase supplies or contract debts in the name of the board of education; (3) must handle school money as directed by the rules of the school system; (4) must keep down expenses by turning off water, lights, etc.; and (5) shall report to the principal any pupils not entitled to free tuition.¹

It is clearly evident that the administration of these regulations

¹ Adapted from L. K. Klitzke, "Duties of Teachers in City School Systems as Specified by Board Rules and Regulations," p. 119. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934.

makes no heavy demand on the teacher for a comprehensive knowledge of the income out of which the public schools receive support or the program of expenditures of the local board of education as proposed in the annual school budget.

Further study of the regulations enacted by boards of education in city systems shows that the boards have been very specific regarding many matters of public and private importance other than school finance about which the members of these boards think pupils should receive instruction; for example, thrift, alcoholic beverages, narcotics, tree planting, health, and the like. Regarding matters pertaining to instruction about American institutions and their support, the regulations are very general. Five school systems have regulations requiring the teacher to uphold and to create respect for existing laws of city, state, and nation; four hold the teacher responsible for teaching Americanism and the ideals of American government; one admonishes teachers of grades above the fourth to explain on election day the meaning of the elective franchise in the United States.

The evidence clearly supports the conclusion that in the past boards of education have not expected the teacher to interpret the American public school to pupils and parents or to explain the basis of financial support. Certainly, the teacher has not been expected to deal with tax problems unless such problems happen to be discussed in a general way in adopted textbooks.

RESPONSIBILITIES ESTABLISHED BY SCHOOL PRACTICE

The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study reveals that teachers at all grade levels report that they bear some responsibility for finance in local schools. These responsibilities are largely for extracurriculum funds, such as the managing of funds for social activities, musical and dramatic organizations, publications, forensic activities, excursions, assembly exercises, student drives and campaigns for funds, and other pupil activities. In

only one other instance did the teachers report a responsibility for finance, namely, the managing of funds collected occasionally from the community for the purchase of school supplies and equipment.

Obviously, the participation of the teacher in school finance has been limited very largely to the custody of student funds. The acceptance by the teacher of such responsibility is a service to administrative officers in local schools; it does not result in the acquisition by the teacher of insight into the problems of school finance that will enable him to instruct pupils regarding the methods of supporting public institutions. Nor does the responsibility for participation in these minor acts of management promote improved relations between the public and the schools.

New conception of responsibility of teacher for finance

Many boards of education and superintendents of schools have changed their views. The teacher is now regarded as a partner in the enterprise of conducting the school and as such must accept the responsibilities which his status requires him to assume. It is of course clearly evident that the responsibilities of the teacher are not the same as those of the board of education, the superintendent, or the school principal, since the authority of the teacher differs from that of the administrative officers named. However, within the authority granted to the teacher by official regulations and administrative instructions, responsibility is expected to be assumed.

UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEMS OF SCHOOL FINANCE

The teacher should be as well informed regarding the problems of school finance as are the leading citizens of the community in which he is employed. The leadership of the school system should be satisfied with nothing less. To the realization of this goal the teacher may be advised to take extension courses in

public-school finance. In-service instruction may also be provided to aid the teacher in acquiring the understanding of federal, state, and local aspects of school finance. The teacher should be well informed not only regarding the sources of school income and its adequacy, but also regarding the way the income is spent. Likewise, he should be well informed concerning the income and expenditures of all publicly supported institutions in the local civil unit. Certainly, it is not too much to expect the teacher as an intelligent citizen to understand the major problems of school and civil finance in locality and state and to participate in the solution of these problems.

School costs

The teacher is often confronted with the problem of discussing with critical parents the cost of education in the local unit. The views of these parents have frequently been formed without adequate information. Tax bills seem high and budget items are thought of as very large when people do not understand the services which are rendered in return. Parents do not realize how many pupils there are in schools. They do not understand that public expenses when distributed throughout the year and distributed per capita for the pupils in schools appear very different from the way they appear when considered only in the aggregate. As a corrective for the unfavorable general impression it is useless for teachers to talk in general terms. The teacher should avoid all discussions unless he is adequately informed as to details.

Items of information with which the teacher should be familiar are (1) the tax rate for local school purposes, (2) the ratio of the school rate to the total tax rate for all governmental purposes, (3) the ratio of the assessed valuation of local property to its real value, (4) the part of school cost borne by local taxes, (5) the per-pupil cost of the local schools in comparison with such costs in similar communities, and (6) the distribution of expenses with respect to the services rendered. Factual information on the

items indicated should enable the teacher to discuss questions of school costs with critical taxpayers.

Whether or not the teacher is frequently called upon to discuss school costs with critical parents, it is essential that as an interested citizen he should be conversant with the most recent information available on the topics specified. Such information should be disseminated to the teachers from central administrative officers and should be discussed by the school principal and teachers as a means of checking the correctness of interpretations.

Sources of school income

Since schools are among the most expensive institutions maintained by the American public it is important that there be a clear general understanding of the fact that the United States has undertaken what no other nation has ever attempted, namely, the opening of opportunities for education above the elementary-school level to all young people. This great experiment in American education can be carried forward only if the resources of the nation are properly drawn upon. The resources of the United States are not equally distributed. There are in every township and county school districts less able to educate their children than are other districts. The same differences appear when sections of states are compared and when states are compared with one another. Anything like an adequate realization of the purposes of education requires therefore some consideration of the uneven distribution of wealth and of children in different parts of the nation.

Since the amount of school support received from federal, state, and local sources varies from state to state, it is important for the teacher to know the facts for the state and locality in which he is employed. The most recent data available reveal that for continental United States, the Federal Government provides approximately 1.2 per cent of the total income used in the support of schools. Twenty-nine and five-tenths per cent is received from state sources and the remaining 69.3 per cent is derived

from local taxes. The range in the percentages of school income obtained from federal sources varies from two-tenths of one per cent in New York to 6.7 per cent in Wyoming. The part received from state sources varies from 1.4 per cent in Iowa to 90.9 per cent in Delaware, and that secured from local sources varies from 6.9 per cent in Delaware to 98 per cent in Iowa. Information for each of the states is provided by the Division of Research of the National Education Association.¹

The possession of such information is necessary if the teacher desires to understand the problems of local school finance. For example, if 90 per cent or more of the school revenue of a state must be raised through local taxation there will be great disparities among the school districts of that state, since the equalizing factors, namely, federal and state support, are insignificant; if on the contrary, half or more of the school revenue comes from federal and state sources the inequality between poor and wealthy districts is partly removed. The reference cited on *State Comparisons of School Support* reveals that nine states raise over 90 per cent of their revenue for the support of schools from local taxes and that eleven other states raise over 75 per cent but less than 90 per cent through local taxation. Certain local school districts in these twenty states may have such a low assessed valuation of property that the legal tax rate for school purposes will not produce enough revenue to provide a satisfactory school. On the contrary, in adjacent districts which have a concentration of wealth a low rate of taxation produces enough revenue to provide superior educational facilities. These inequalities in ability to support schools are frequently found in states that raise the large part of their revenue through local taxes.

Eleven states have attempted to eliminate extreme inequalities between school districts by reducing local taxes and increasing state taxes, distributing to each local district from the state treasury an equitable part of the total state tax for school pur-

¹ *State Comparisons of School Support*. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1941. Pp. 18.

poses. Some of these states have also established equalization funds from which underprivileged districts may receive additional support when the maximum local tax and the share of the state tax will not provide adequate funds for the schools.

Disparity in school opportunities among states

The forty-eight states differ markedly not only in their financial ability to support schools but also in the size of their educational load. Data for ten selected states are presented in Table 12 to illustrate the extent of the disparities. It is seen in this table, for example, that the ratio of children five to seventeen years of age to the percentage of national income produced by New York in 1930 is approximately eight times greater than that produced by South Carolina. Obviously, New York can maintain good schools with comparatively little effort, whereas South Carolina can maintain schools only with the greatest effort. Likewise, California and Illinois can support schools with less effort than can Arkansas and Kentucky. Further comparisons are unneces-

TABLE 12. PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN FIVE TO SEVENTEEN YEARS OF AGE, PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL INCOME, AND RATIO OF CHILDREN TO INCOME IN 10 SELECTED STATES *

State	Percentage of		Ratio of Children to Income
	Children 5 to 17 Years of Age	National Income	
New York.....	8.85	18.61	2.12
California.....	3.61	6.56	1.82
Illinois.....	5.61	8.17	1.46
Pennsylvania.....	8.08	8.56	1.06
Wisconsin.....	2.36	2.18	.92
Kansas.....	1.51	1.17	.77
Iowa.....	1.95	1.31	.67
Kentucky.....	2.39	1.13	.47
Arkansas.....	1.77	.63	.35
South Carolina.....	1.86	.50	.27

* Adapted from Newton Edwards, *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth*, pp. 169-71. Washington: American Council on Education, 1939.

sary to make clear the inequality of the educational load of the different states.

Other data merely serve to accentuate the disparities pointed out. For example, the ratio of children from five to seventeen years of age to adults from twenty to sixty-four years of age is .363 in New York; in South Carolina the ratio is .739.¹ Thus New York has more than twice the percentage of adults to contribute to the support of education that South Carolina has. This difference in the character of the population of the two states increases still further the imbalance between the need for education and the ability to provide it.

It is difficult, of course, to determine the actual needs of the different states for outside assistance in the support of schools. Data are available, however, from which fairly valid conclusions may be drawn. Such data are presented in Table 13 for ten selected states: (1) The ability of these states is shown in terms of an index number derived from the ratio of the number of units of educational need and the revenue that would be available if a model tax system were in operation; (2) the effort of the states is likewise revealed by an index number derived from the ratio of current expenditures for education and the revenue that would be available from the model tax system; (3) finally, the ratio of the effort put forth by each state to its theoretical ability under the model tax system to support its schools is indicated. From these figures the ability and the effort of each of the ten states can be compared with the average of all the states. For example, the ability of Nevada is approximately six times that of Mississippi, while the effort required to support its schools is only about half as great. The ratio of the effort put forth by Nevada to its ability is 1 to 2.6, whereas the ratio in the case of Mississippi is 1 to 0.3. In the light of the evidence it is clear that Nevada does not need outside assistance to maintain a minimum program of education regarded as a standard for all the states. On the contrary, the state of Mississippi which has low ability and puts

¹ *State Comparisons of School Support*, *ibid.*, pp. 158-59.

TABLE 13. RELATION OF ABILITY AND EFFORT OF THE STATES TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS AS COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE OF ALL STATES FOR THE TEN-YEAR PERIOD, 1922-1932 *

State	Effort	Ability	Ratio of Effort to Ability
United States.....	1.00	1.00	1:1
Nevada.....	.76	1.94	1:2.6
Rhode Island.....	.81	1.49	1:1.8
Illinois.....	.91	1.30	1:1.4
Iowa.....	.93	1.18	1:1.3
Washington.....	.99	1.13	1:1.1
California.....	1.21	1.21	1:1
South Dakota.....	.97	.97	1:1
Minnesota.....	1.13	1.04	1:0.9
Utah.....	1.26	.67	1:0.5
Mississippi.....	1.31	.32	1:0.3

* Adapted from John K. Norton and Margaret Alltucker Norton, *Wealth, Children and Education*, p. 54. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

forth great effort needs federal assistance if it is to provide educational facilities that even approximate a minimum program considered acceptable for the United States.

Through the study of data, such as those presented in Table 13, the teacher is able to appraise the ability and the effort of his state to provide support of schools in relation to comparable states and to the national average. The ratio of effort to ability also furnishes information of importance in carrying on discussions with interested persons. If the ability of a state is less than the national average and the ratio of effort to ability is greatly below 1 to 1, it is apparent that federal assistance for the support of schools should be regarded with favor.

Inequalities among local units

The inequalities in ability to support schools are much greater among local units than among the states. Data collected in 1930 indicated that the relative ability of the wealthiest state to finance a minimum program of education was approximately seven times that of the poorest state.¹ Between local units within

¹ Norton and Norton, *ibid.*, p. 47.

states having the district system of school organization the inequality is occasionally found to be as great as 400 to 1. While state systems suffer generally from inequalities in school support, the greatest need is found in local districts which have so little wealth back of each pupil that it is impossible without some form of aid to provide even a minimum educational program.

To illustrate, in the state of Illinois, which ranks well above the national average in ability to support schools according to the data reported by Norton and Norton,¹ 96 per cent of the school districts are of such small size that they have been unable to establish and support both elementary and secondary schools. Hence, as early as 1872, the General Assembly was confronted with the problem of making special provisions for the establishment of secondary schools. At that time permissive legislation was enacted making the township a district for high-school purposes. Thus, townships voting to establish high-school districts overlying the districts supporting only elementary schools were enabled to levy separate taxes for secondary-school purposes. This plan has enabled the state of Illinois to establish a large number of township and community high schools (598) in territories in which no single district is able to provide high-school facilities.² The disadvantages of the dual plan are divided administration and excessive cost of general control, both of which add to the tax overload on real estate, which bears over 90 per cent of the cost of public education in Illinois. But even among these township and community high-school districts the inequalities are still very great, the wealthiest having twenty times as much wealth back of each pupil as the poorest.

The following table shows the school tax rates reported for the 63 districts in the state of Illinois which served communities having a population of more than 10,000 in 1938-39. Twenty-five of these cities are organized as unit systems, that is, ad-

¹ *Ibid.*

² In 1917 the Township High School Act was revised to permit homogeneous areas smaller than a township to establish community high-school districts.

TABLE 14. SCHOOL TAX RATES IN ILLINOIS CITIES ABOVE 10,000 POPULATION ORGANIZED AS UNIT AND DUAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS *

Rate	Twenty-Five Unit Systems	Thirty-Eight Dual Systems		
		Elementary Districts	High-School Districts	Total Rate
Highest rate.....	\$3.18	\$2.39	\$2.26	\$4.42
Median rate.....	2.18	2.00	1.38	3.52
Lowest rate.....	1.45	1.28	.75	2.07

* Adapted from material prepared by the Research Department of the Illinois Education Association. Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Education Association, May, 1939 (mimeographed).

ministered by one board of education and supporting twelve grades of elementary and secondary schooling on a single tax rate. Thirty-eight are organized as dual systems; that is, the elementary schools (eight grades) and the secondary schools (four grades) are organized and administered as independent units by separate boards of education and are supported by separate tax rates.

The tabulation reveals a median tax rate in the 25 unit districts of \$2.18. The rates range from \$1.45 to \$3.18, 14 of the 25 reporting tax rates higher than \$2.00. In the 38 dual districts a median tax rate of \$2.00 is required for elementary schools and a median rate of \$1.38 for secondary schools, or a median total rate of \$3.52. Thus, it is apparent that taxpayers residing in cities organized under the dual plan pay from 40 to 60 per cent more for the support of schools than do taxpayers in cities organized under the unit plan. While the dual plan makes possible the consolidation of elementary-school districts for secondary-school purposes, it also increases the tax on local real estate which, as pointed out earlier, is the main source of school support in Illinois. The legislation which sanctioned the dual plan does not afford a constructive solution to the problem of an adequate school system for the state. The problem is merely passed to the local units for solution by permissive legislation, the method usually employed by politically minded legislators when public opinion is not crystallized in support of constructive remedial legislation.

More than half (52.5 per cent) of the area of the state of Illinois is still without secondary-school facilities. This area is organized in each county as non-high-school territory for which a board is elected whose duty it is to levy a tax to defray the cost of tuition of pupils desiring to attend high schools in other districts. All but one of the 102 counties of the state have these non-high-school districts.

The situation described has been created by the refusal of the General Assembly of the state to provide a unit of school organization sufficiently large to maintain a twelve-grade school system. The unit adopted by the assembly in 1855 was the local district. At that time Illinois was a pioneer state consisting largely of agricultural communities which desired no more education than that provided by the elementary school. The school districts were formed by these homogeneous communities usually embracing a territory of not more than five or six square miles. With support from the state and a tax on local property each community could maintain an elementary school since the cost of such institutions at the time was slight. No great amount of taxable wealth in the district was required to provide the necessary local support for the type of school then in demand.

The population increased rapidly and with the changes came new demands for schools. The cities and towns began to call for secondary-school facilities. Some of these communities were able to provide such facilities out of the revenue which the local tax provided. Those that were unable to do so began to exert pressure on the General Assembly to enact legislation designed to provide the funds needed to extend the school system beyond the elementary grades. The assembly, instead of establishing districts throughout the state large enough to support a twelve-grade school system, handed the people a subterfuge in the form of the Township High School Law, which made possible the establishment of the secondary-school facilities by township voting to approve the necessary increase in local taxes.

The refusal of the Illinois Legislature to face the real issues

when the emergency with respect to secondary education arose has resulted in a succession of legislative enactments as one emergency after another has arisen in the development and support of its public schools. Whether the state will continue the policy of emergency legislation indefinitely or face the facts and provide the constructive solution to the problem which the situation requires will be determined partly by the influence of its 50,000 teachers. When they as a professional group comprehend the educational needs of the state and accept responsibility for creating a public opinion regarding the correct solution of these needs, the General Assembly will provide the solution needed.

What has occurred in Illinois has also happened in other states. When a crisis in the organization, administration, or support of public schools has arisen, emergency legislation has usually been enacted to meet the situation. As a result, the school laws of many states consist very largely of a series of emergency enactments which, although seemingly necessary at the time of passage, are no longer adequate in meeting the present needs of the rapidly developing schools. Because of the method of providing for school needs just described, most states are confronted with the common problem of adapting old laws to new conditions. This problem is being attacked in a number of states through the appointment of educational commissions to advise the legislatures regarding the codification of school laws.

Rapid changes in local taxable wealth

It is often difficult for teachers to understand the reasons for the fluctuations in the income available for the support of schools. Changes in the methods of distributing state aid or changes in the taxable wealth of local school units may affect budgets and appropriations for the different school services. For example, appropriations for auxiliary services, i.e., libraries, health work, playgrounds, lunchrooms, transportation of pupils, and the like, in the public schools of Illinois in the two-year period, 1931-32 to

1933-34, declined from \$9,835,830.91 to \$4,158,141.80, a decrease of 58 per cent. In the same period the appropriations for general control decreased 24 per cent, for instruction 19 per cent, and for operation of plant 9 per cent. The reduction in school appropriations required readjustments in services which seriously affected the work and the status of all the teachers in the state. Unless the teachers were fully informed regarding the changes in the appropriations and the reasons therefor, the fullest co-operation of the teachers in meeting the situation could scarcely be expected by boards of education and administrative officers.

Most of the change in the status of school budgets indicated in the foregoing paragraph was occasioned by (1) the reduction in the taxable wealth of the local school units, (2) the decrease in the tax levy for school purposes, or (3) the failure of citizens to pay their taxes. Whether the condition can be influenced by the teacher or not, knowledge of causes and possible remedies is important. Such knowledge will at least avert the tendency to indulge in general criticism which serves only to create unwholesome attitudes and to make for bad public relations.

Since instructional services usually bear the brunt of serious reductions in budget appropriations, the teacher should know the effect on appropriations of sudden or unexpected changes in the tax revenue of the local school unit. An example is again taken from Illinois, since the problems of this state are well known to the authors. In a certain county of the state, the teachers employed in the ten townships in 1937 and in 1938 would have been greatly perplexed by the decrease in school appropriations (Table 15) unless they had knowledge regarding the changes in the financial resources of their districts. The stabilization of services in the schools of the townships indicated in Table 15 can be accomplished only through increase in local tax rates, new revenue provided by the state, and highly efficient administration. In spite of any or all of the measures indicated, curtailment was required in expenditures which directly affected the teacher and his work. Certainly the fullest co-operation on the part of

TABLE 15. DECREASE IN THE ASSESSED VALUATION OF PROPERTY IN
TEN TOWNSHIPS IN ONE COUNTY IN ILLINOIS BETWEEN
1937 AND 1938

Townships	Assessed Valuation		Per Cent Decrease
	1937	1938	
A	\$1,450,000	\$809,000	44
B	16,792,000	10,488,000	38
C	15,617,000	9,691,000	38
D	2,423,000	1,522,000	37
E	369,000	258,000	30
F	444,000	340,000	23
G	9,332,000	7,342,000	21
H	935,000	755,000	19
I	1,103,000	821,000	15
J	193,000	144,000	15
All	\$48,658,000	\$32,170,000	34

every teacher and other employee was necessary to avert serious consequences for the schools in making adjustments to rapidly declining revenue.

The cases which have been used as examples are by no means unique. Everywhere in the United States similar situations exist. The fact is that the tax systems of this country are antiquated and the expectations of parents with regard to opportunities for their children have far outrun anything that was thought of in earlier times. Today every family expects its children to attend high school. High-school buildings are overcrowded and other physical facilities as well as instructional facilities are called upon to render services for which they are in many communities wholly inadequate.

Variation in expenditures for school purposes

It is always difficult to offer a suggestion as to the amount of money that should be expended in support of the public schools of any given community. The cost of the school system depends upon the length of the school term, the facilities provided, the nature of the program maintained, salary schedules, and the

adequacy of the staff provided for the various services required in operating the schools. It is not an easy matter to compare any school system with other school systems in regard to all of the variable factors which affect the level of expenditures for school purposes. Probably the most satisfactory basis of comparison is the cost per pupil in average daily attendance in different school systems of about the same size. Table 16 has been prepared from data presented in a recent report of the United States Office of Education for school systems in cities which had a population of more than 75,000 and less than 100,000 according to the 1930 census. The current expenses are for the school year 1938-39.

Examination of the data presented in Table 16 reveals a range in current school expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance from \$58.62 to \$161.46, or a ratio of approximately 1 to 3. The median school of the group spends about 70 per cent more than the lowest school and about 60 per cent less than the highest school. Since approximately three-fourths of the current expense budget of all the schools is for instruction and since the salaries of teachers constitute the major instructional expense, it is evident that information of the type contained in

TABLE 16. CURRENT EXPENSES PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE IN CITIES WITH POPULATIONS BETWEEN 75,000 AND 100,000, 1938-39

School Systems	Current Expense per Pupil
Bayonne, N.J.....	\$161.46
Schenectady, N.Y.....	145.60
Niagara Falls, N.Y.....	132.59
Harrisburg, Pa.....	114.58
Waterbury, Conn.....	112.54
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.....	108.59
Manchester, N.H.....	100.49
Rockford, Ill.....	93.50
Lansing, Mich.....	93.04
Saginaw, Mich.....	90.13
St. Joseph, Mo.....	85.57
Lincoln, Nebr.....	81.03
Little Rock, Ark.....	58.62

the table is important to the teacher. Questions of interest to the teacher are: (1) Is the school system obtaining from local sources the revenue that the community can reasonably be expected to raise? (2) Is the contribution of the state in which the school system is located a fair measure of the interest of the state in public education and of the ability of the state to assist in the support of local schools? (3) Is the maximum possible federal aid being received by the school system? (4) What is the status of local public opinion with respect to the standards of education which the present level of expenditures provides?

Obviously, neither the individual teacher nor the professional group to which he belongs can solve the problems that are raised in the foregoing discussions. It can properly be urged, however, that the great variations in the per-pupil expenditures in different school systems should be fully understood by teachers. They should be fully informed regarding the conditions which prevail in their own school systems. The dissemination of information to the public is the first step in a series of activities that will be required to bring about the elimination of dissatisfaction among discontented taxpayers and the correction of unreasonable disparities in the per-capita expenditures of public schools.

While the status of teachers in school systems with low per-pupil expenditures varies considerably from that of teachers in the high-cost systems, the responsibilities of the two groups are much the same. Both should understand the financial condition of the school systems in which they are employed and the problems to be solved locally and by the state school system of which the local school is a part. The individual teacher regardless of his local situation should view the problems broadly and as a member of the profession he should work for the improvement of conditions which are responsible for the great disparities found to exist.

The need for federal aid

The evidence presented concerning the inequalities of educa-

tional opportunities among states and localities makes clear the need for greater federal aid to public schools than has yet been provided. The attitude of the teacher and the average citizen is to look at this issue from a selfish point of view. The relative ability of the states to support schools is frequently disregarded when considering the funds needed by the schools. If federal aid is in the offing, the question usually posed is, "What will my state get out of it?" The disinclination of the wealthy states to look with favor on efforts to provide federal aid for needy states unless such aid is equally distributed to all states, is largely responsible for the present lack of federal support for needy schools.

Advocates of general distribution of federal funds for educational purposes regardless of need have unwittingly rendered a disservice to public education by placing themselves before the public as espousing "pork barrel" methods for the support of schools. In this respect it is repeatedly said that the Federal Congress is loath to make appropriations that discriminate between the states and consequently any proposal to aid states in great need that does not also contemplate similar aid to all states is not likely to receive favorable action. Hence, to advocate federal aid for schools on any basis other than uniform grants to states is generally regarded as politically inexpedient.

Since gross inequalities exist among the states in their ability to provide desirable educational opportunities, it is evident that lack of action by the Federal Government prevents many children from securing a proper American education. The teacher should therefore take the rational rather than the political view of the situation and should attempt to assist in developing a strong local public opinion in support of federal assistance to states on the basis of actual needs.

Opposition to federal aid

Some people have opposed federal aid to public education on the ground that the acceptance of such aid weakens local control and will result eventually in the control of public education by

the Federal Government. Some also oppose federal aid because of unwillingness to contribute any further to the support of public education. The opposition of both groups has been weakened considerably in recent years through the assistance given to young people above the elementary-school level by the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration, and by the recommendation of the Advisory Committee on Education to provide federal aid for the transportation of pupils and free textbooks regardless of where the pupils may attend school.

If federal control over public education is increased the cause will be found in the general apathy of local officials toward the projects sponsored by the Federal Government, rather than in the desire of the Federal Government to dominate local education. The fear of dual control of education in local units is a boggy that can be easily disposed of by administrative officers and teachers through the exercise of educational leadership in local communities.

PARTICIPATION IN SOLVING THE FINANCIAL PROBLEMS OF LOCAL SCHOOLS

The teacher is entitled to the same privileges that are accorded to any other citizen in the consideration of problems affecting the welfare of the schools. In matters which involve the personal welfare of the teacher and the character of his professional services, his views should receive greater consideration than those of other citizens. The financial condition and needs of the schools present problems of such vital concern to the teacher both as a citizen and as a member of a profession that the settlement of them without his participation is a serious mistake.

The whole purpose of the foregoing paragraphs is to emphasize that teachers must have a full understanding of the financial support of schools and the difficulties which are encountered in securing adequate support. If the position which has been taken is valid, the question immediately arises: What activities besides discussion of school finances can teachers properly under-

take with fellow citizens? Several statements can be made for the guidance of teachers along lines that they can follow in the discharge of their personal duties.

Preparation of the school budget

The preparation of the budget is regarded as the responsibility of the school superintendent and the board of education. Income is estimated and funds are prorated to the different school services. The budget thus purports to control the program of educational expenditures for the school year. A budget so made cannot possibly provide for all the needs of the school, unless specific requests for appropriations are received and fully considered by the school officials when the budget is being prepared.

The preparation of a budget for a district maintaining only a single teacher can be very readily arranged if the teacher helps to make the needs of the school known. In such a case budget requests come from a single person. Hence, requests need be considered only in relation to estimated funds. In school systems involving a number of teachers, special requests of individual teachers should be considered in their general relation to total school needs, unless funds are sufficient to provide for all the requests made. In these systems the individual classroom is the unit in the program of expenditures for the school year. In large systems having many schools, the individual school becomes the unit, with the principal assuming responsibility for consulting individual teachers about the needs of the individual classrooms. The total budget thus becomes a summation of classified appropriations based on the expressed needs of individual teachers, principals, clerks, and custodial personnel of the system of schools.

Successful budget preparation involves five steps, namely: (1) the collection of requests for budget appropriations, (2) classification of requests, (3) drafting of the budget, (4) presentation, consideration, and adoption of the budget, and (5) administration of the budget as a program of expenditures for the school year. The teacher is concerned primarily with steps one and four.

Many teachers have to be contented with step one. They are privileged to present requests, but are not allowed to participate in the consideration and adoption of requests. If the budget is to provide for the needs of a school system, the teacher should be privileged to present evidence in support of requests for consideration prior to official adoption. Teachers as a group should be fully informed regarding the budget finally adopted. They will find it distinctly valuable to be able to read the budget and to follow its administration throughout the school year.

Administration of the school budget

The administration of the budget is the responsibility of the executive officers of the board of education. Even so, the teacher need not be uninformed regarding the way in which this responsibility is discharged. The teacher is vitally concerned with the uses made of school money. These uses can be followed by reading the monthly reports of expenditures and appropriations of the board of education. Expenditures are now generally classified according to the common categories listed in Table 17. These categories include the recurrent items of school expenditures, commonly designated in financial accounting as the annual current expenses. The plan is so widely used that median practices of apportioning school expenses among the different classifications can be made for school systems of comparable size. Hence, it is possible for any interested person to determine whether the expenditures of a given city are out of line with the median or average practices of comparable systems.

Table 17 shows the median practice of a group of eighty cities, ranging in population from 30,000 to 100,000, with respect to the percentage distribution in 1938 of current school expenses among six common budget categories. If the percentage of budget expended for classified service by one city varies widely from the percentage expended by the others, explanation for the variation can with propriety be sought. For example, the portion of the current expense budget used for general control, that is, central

office or "overhead" administration, in the eighty cities was 3 per cent. In a given city of the group the percentage of expenditure for this item was 8.4. Obviously, the cost of general control in the city expending the large percentage was excessive, unless the difference can be explained in terms of special services rendered to the system as a whole. Data of the sort presented in the table are valuable in checking the financial policies of boards of education regarding the appropriate distribution of funds among the different services to be supported.

TABLE 17. MEDIAN PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CURRENT EXPENSES IN EIGHTY CITIES RANGING IN POPULATION FROM 30,000 TO 100,000 IN 1937-38 *

Budget Category	Median Percentage
General control	3.0
Instruction	77.8
Operation of plant	11.0
Maintenance	3.8
Auxiliary agencies	2.5
Fixed charges	1.9

* Lula Mae Comstock, *Per Pupil Costs in City Schools, 1937-38*, p. 8. U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 86, 1939.

In most school systems a strenuous effort is made to conserve as large a percentage as possible of the school funds for the expenses of instruction. School officials using more than 25 per cent of their current expense budget for purposes other than instruction can properly be expected to justify the expenditures which were allowed to encroach upon the instructional preserve.

Some variation can be expected in the percentage of distribution of current expenditures of a school system among the different budget categories from year to year. However, the variation should not be great and adequate explanation should be furnished by the school officials responsible for budget administration. A teaching staff critically alert to irregularities of any kind in budget administration is a deterrent to misappropriations or the manipulation of accounts by officials who are disposed to use school funds for purposes other than those specified in the adopted budget.

Participation in the solution of financial problems

Until federal and state policies which pertain to the support of schools undergo decided change, many local schools must find temporary solutions of their financial problems. These solutions may require local campaigns of education regarding the needs of the schools and the readjustments that these needs call for in local support. Usually, the teacher should play an important role both individually and as a member of groups in such campaigns. Here, the need for reliable information and clear understanding of the problems at issue is evident. Lack of information and understanding by the teacher tends to create uncertainty and distrust on the part of those with whom he discusses school needs.

The kind of participation desired of the teacher in the solution of local finance problems is dissemination and interpretation of information whenever an opportunity presents itself.

It is especially important that teachers avoid those types of campaigning which lay them open to the charge that they are working for their own selfish advantages. Teachers should be able to make a clear case for the contention that a particular school budget is needed in the interests of the young people of the community. They should emphasize the need of superior training and superior qualifications on the part of members of their own profession. They should be the first to advocate merit systems of appointment and promotion. They should be bold to make the fact known when school accommodations are overcrowded and school supplies are inadequate. When communities demand new courses and new opportunities for pupils, teachers should make every effort to supply what is demanded, pointing out always the equipment needed for effective meeting of the demands.

There is a legitimate sphere for organized activity on the part of teachers in supplying leadership for community policies with respect to school expenditures. The recommendations of teacher groups should be based on research. When the recommendations are made in the interests of pupils to be served rather than of the

teacher to be benefited, the policies are more favorably received by the public. In fact, the teacher groups and the public can find a common cause for operation in the support of proposed changes which have for their purpose the welfare of pupils.

An example of the kind of participation under discussion has been the advocacy by the National Education Association for a number of years of increased federal aid to public education. As a result of the discussion of the issue, much research has been stimulated and the findings have become widely disseminated. Furthermore, two national committees have studied the question in the last ten years at the request of presidents of the United States and important recommendations have been made.¹ While the recommendations have not been enacted into law, the general understanding of the issue by the public has been greatly increased. As a result, the question can probably be dealt with in the future by members of Congress on its merits and without undue pressure from constituent groups.

RESPONSIBILITIES FOR STUDENT FUNDS

Most teachers regardless of type of position or teaching level will find it necessary to assume some responsibility for student funds. The occasions which necessitate such responsibility vary in character from serving as a temporary custodian for the personal funds of individual pupils in primary grades to collecting and accounting for student fees in junior and senior high schools. In brief, the responsibility although not great, may prove at times to be onerous.

School banking

The movement to encourage the development of habits of thrift on the part of school children has become nationwide in

¹ *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I: Committee Findings and Recommendations; Part II: Basic Facts. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931, and Reports of the Advisory Committee on Education, Volumes 1-19. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1939.

recent years. The American Thrift Society, an affiliate of the National Education Association and the National Council of Education, has sponsored the movement with the support of the American Bankers Association, which is largely responsible for the introduction of savings banking in the schools. Pupils are encouraged to save systematically and to form the habit of banking through the organization of bank depositories in local schools. Although the mechanics of banking have been greatly simplified the service makes recurring weekly demands on the teacher in school systems that observe the practice. The mere fact that nearly four million pupils participated in school banking in the peak year 1927¹ indicates that the responsibility for administering the banking activities must have affected a large number of teachers. The losses of children's funds occasioned by bank failures during the early depression years caused many schools to discontinue school banking. The practice of encouraging thrift on the part of school children through school banking is still sufficiently general, however, to warrant a study of the methods used in the handling of student funds in public schools. The American Bankers Association reported 2,753,682 children in 8,483 schools as having deposits in school savings at the close of the school year in 1938.

School fees

Many schools follow the practice of collecting various kinds of fees from pupils. In some schools, which do not furnish free supplies, teachers, particularly in primary grades, are required to collect fees from pupils for the purchase of common materials which cannot be obtained conveniently through individual purchases. The collection, custody, and spending of the funds is the responsibility of the teacher. Other schools collect laboratory and material fees from pupils to defray the cost of science supplies, outline maps, special types of paper, ink, and the like.

¹ W. E. Albig, *A History of School Savings Banking in the United States and Its European Beginnings*. New York: American Bankers Association, 1928.

Still other schools require the teacher to collect fines from pupils for unnecessary wear on rental textbooks and for breakage of school equipment or damage to school property caused through carelessness. The teacher is required to issue receipts to the pupils or parents from whom collections are made and to report in full to the principal or to the business department of the school system.

The responsibility for these fees makes a rather heavy demand on the clerical ability of the teacher, since accounts must be carefully kept and periodically reported. Furthermore, the teacher is expected to make good any losses which may occur between the collection of such fees and their delivery to the proper administrative officer.

Petty cash account

The teacher is sometimes allowed a petty cash account by the board of education or parent-teacher association to defray the cost of necessary materials not supplied by the school system or by the individual parent. Such an account is a great convenience and advantage to the teacher. However, its administration may involve bookkeeping demands which cannot be met without some sacrifice of time and effort. In general, most teachers will prefer to keep the necessary accounts and to make the required reports in return for the benefits derived.

Activity fees

The rapid expansion of extracurriculum activities in both elementary and secondary schools in recent years has created problems in the financial support of these activities. In the absence of a comprehensive school plan of supporting extracurriculum activities, the responsibility for the support of individual activities usually falls on the sponsoring teacher. The teacher must direct the collection of dues and supervise their management. Even in schools that collect a general activity fee or sell an activity ticket the responsibility of the teacher for co-opera-

tion and support of the groups sponsored is by no means light.

The character of the responsibility of the teacher for activity fees varies greatly in different schools according to the plans in use for the financial support of extracurriculum activities. The problem of the teacher is to understand the system in use in his school and to adjust himself to its requirements. It is unwise for the teacher to allow himself to be irritated by the financial demands created by pupil activities. He must recognize the demands as legitimate school duties to be fully understood and efficiently performed.

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RESPONSIBILITIES FOR RECORDS AND REPORTS

THE responsibilities of the teacher for records and reports in early American schools were trivial in comparison with the responsibilities that must be assumed today. Before schools were supported fully at public expense the teacher was expected to keep an account book of the attendance of pupils and of the so-called rates or payments collected from parents. In the New England colonies it was a common practice of the school committee to require the schoolmaster to collect the rates from the various families patronizing the school. The master's account book served as the basis of his claims against the town in which he was employed. It is not unusual to find in the records of the town meeting requests from the schoolmaster petitioning the town to take the necessary steps to collect and pay him the part of his salary long overdue. What action was taken by the town meetings with respect to such petitions, the records do not show.

Similar records were kept by the Dutch schoolmasters in New Amsterdam where the law authorized the master to demand and collect quarterly for every pupil taught a fee in addition to his yearly salary. The fee which the teacher collected is described as follows:

For each child, whom he teaches the a b c's, spelling and reading, 30 styvers; for teaching to read and write, 50 styvers; for teaching to read, write and cipher, 60 styvers; from those who come in the evening and between times pro rata a fair sum. The poor and needy, who ask to be taught for God's sake, he shall teach for nothing.¹

¹ *Minutes of the Orphan Masters of New Amsterdam*, Vol. II, p. 115 (1630).
Translated by B. Fenrow, New York, 1907.

Later, when the schools were supported entirely at public expense, a greater amount of information had to be recorded by the teacher for the use of the school committee and its examining committee. The following regulation of the board of education of Northborough, Massachusetts, adopted November 4, 1831, clearly illustrates what was expected of the teacher in the way of school records:

The instructors are to keep, in a book provided for the purpose by the town, upon a plan adopted by the committee, a record of the names, ages, classes, and studies of all who attend their respective schools, showing the amount of attendance of each, with that of their absence; — the number of weeks the school is kept, with the compensation a month; and insert in it such other general remarks as they may think proper; and after subscribing the same, present it to the Committee at the commencement of the examination at the close of the school.¹

Apparently, no written reports were expected of the teacher other than the record book. A report to the town meeting was made by the school committee.

RECORDS AND REPORTS IN MODERN SCHOOLS

In recent years great changes have been made both in the character of the records required of the teacher and in the kind of reports. The matter has been considered so important that it has been made a subject of legislation in many of the states. Local boards of education have also adopted rules and regulations intended to clarify the responsibilities of the teacher for school records and reports. In addition to the numerous requirements imposed by law and regulations, administrative officers in state and city school systems have issued many instructions defining the duties of the teacher for the keeping of records and the making of reports.

¹ American Annals of Education and Instruction for the Year 1832, Vol. II, p. 386.

Statutory responsibility

The keeping of a daily record by the teacher has been made a legal duty in thirty-eight states and the making of a final report, in thirty-nine states.¹ The form of the register and the nature of the final report have generally not been prescribed in law but have been left to be determined by the local unit. The daily register was at first little more than a roster of names with a record of attendance and a rating of conduct. As centralized administration became firmly established, some state superintendents of public instruction, realizing the need for uniformity of reports in the schools of their states, began to develop forms for the keeping of the register and required each local board of education in the state to submit an annual report based on the items of information contained in the teacher's register. Commercial publishers soon prepared registers for sale to local boards of education. These registers conformed to the requirements of the state departments of education. When properly kept by a teacher, the register provided the information needed in making the final report at the end of the school term.

Board rules and regulations

Analysis of the rules and regulations of boards of education in 150 cities reveals a total of forty-one different responsibilities of the teacher with respect to records and reports.² The frequency of mention of these responsibilities in the rules and regulations is 327, or an average of eight times for each responsibility. The records considered most important by the boards of education, if frequency of enactment is the criterion of evaluation, is the keeping of the register, required by the school system, in which is recorded the names of pupils with data on attendance and ab-

¹ Earl W. Anderson, *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*, p. 86. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

² L. K. Klitzke, "Duties of Teachers in City School Systems as Specified by Board Rules and Regulations," pp. 130-32. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934.

sence. The explanation for the type of record so frequently specified is the fact that it is the kind usually required by law. Data of a more advanced type called for frequently in other regulations pertain to the scholarship of pupils, to books, and to supplies. The general import of most of the regulations is to impress upon the teacher the necessity of record-keeping as a routine responsibility.

A considerable number of rules and regulations specify the teacher's responsibilities for keeping records of the progress of pupils and for making reports to parents or guardians. Obviously, the purpose of such records and reports is to encourage a type of pupil accounting not specified in law.

Other types of records and reports less frequently required in the enactments of school boards, but probably taken for granted, are those that pertain to administrative regulations regarding the collection of money from pupils for damage or destruction of property, inventories of equipment and supplies, the sending of pupils to physicians or nurses, and changes in the schedule of classes. These records are kept for purposes of accounting and serve as the basis of administrative reports. Some of these reports must be prepared monthly; others cover longer periods, such as the semester and school year. The preparation of such reports by the teacher requires a careful review of the records for the period to be covered by the report.

USE OF RECORDS IN DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDS

State funds

Grants of lands and funds to the states by the Federal Government for the development of schools and appropriations of states to encourage the organization of schools virtually necessitated the establishment of state departments of education to administer these funds. Local districts complying with the requirements of the state legislatures are generally entitled to a pro-rata share of the annual revenue available for schools. The earlier laws usu-

ally specified that the distribution should be made on the basis of a census count of the children of specified ages residing in the districts of the state. The census method of allotting state funds did not require that the teacher keep any records, although the status of the teacher in a district was materially affected by census data, since the money received from the state was determined by the number of children listed in the census report.

In recent years many states have abandoned the census as a basis of distribution. Other bases are employed, such as number of pupils in average daily attendance, number of teachers employed, and the teacher-unit, that is, a teacher and a given number of pupils. These improved methods of distribution have rendered the annual school census obsolete and as a result states that formerly required local school districts to take a census annually, now employ other methods in distributing school funds.

The use of average daily attendance by state departments of education in the distribution of funds places a great responsibility on the teacher for reliable attendance records. Furthermore, the responsibility of the teacher for regularity of attendance on the part of pupils is increased, since the local district's share of the distributive fund is influenced by attendance.

Local school funds

Records are essential in the preparation of budgets in local districts and in the allocation of funds among the services provided in local schools. Without records of pupil enrollment and pupil attendance the needs for teaching services and educational supplies cannot be reliably predicted when budgets are prepared. The data provided by such records are highly essential in budget hearings and budget adoptions. Also, in the administration of budgets, the records in question are needed to make equitable adjustments in educational services and in cost accounting. Other types of records, especially those dealing with pupil progress, are needed in justifying budget appropriations.

The uses of records for the purposes indicated are of particular

concern to the teacher and when clearly understood should do much to eliminate any hostility on his part to the clerical work involved in the keeping of records.

PURPOSES FOR WHICH RECORDS ARE USED

The teacher in the modern city school is called upon to make more numerous reports than is the teacher in rural or village schools. The nature of the reports varies greatly, ranging from the simple summation of data contained in school records to comprehensive evaluations of classroom problems and procedures.

The clerical work required for the proper keeping of records and the making of necessary reports is probably greater than most people think. A diary record of clerical activities kept by twenty teachers for a period of twenty weeks in a large cosmopolitan high school reveals that the average time spent by members of the group in such activities amounted to fifty-seven minutes per day.¹

The clerical responsibilities of the teacher have probably increased since the study cited was made, inasmuch as the records used in pupil administration have been greatly enlarged in recent years in order to provide the data needed in educational guidance and in the improvement of instruction. The data thus made available provide the bases for the many evaluative reports required of the teacher.

Reports to parents

The date at which periodic reports of the school progress of pupils were first supplied to parents is difficult to establish. As early as 1840 one of the contributors to Horace Mann's *Common School Journal* advocated weekly reports.² He stated that in some schools the practice had been adopted of using printed forms, con-

¹ P. A. Maxwell, "Clerks for Teachers," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XVII (January, 1928), 8.

² *The Common School Journal*, II (June 15, 1840), 185-87.

taining blanks, in which, by some system of figures or letters, the advancement and behavior of the pupil could be recorded and sent to the parents. The purpose of the report was to enlist the support of the home in promoting diligence and good order on the part of pupils. The contributor declared that he had used such a form but that he had found certain objections which had led him to modify the plan. The main objection, he thought, might apply with equal force against either weekly or monthly reports, namely, want of simplicity. He goes on to say that by attempting to report too much, the teacher fails to give a clear impression to the mind of the parent of the pupil's standing in each of the subjects pursued. He also says that commendation and censure are often so blended in the report submitted that they prevent the parent from determining the preponderance of either without a more careful study of the data than most parents have time to make.

As a result of his experiences the contributor had adopted an improved plan, free from the objection stated, which had exceeded his anticipations for its success. He had procured a number of cards of different colors — white, blue, yellow, and red. On these, respectively, he had printed the words, "Entire Approbation," "Approbation," "Indifferent," and "Censure," with the name of his school, and spaces for the name of the pupil and the date and number of the report. The color of the card was itself an indication of its meaning, since the same colors were always used for the particular degrees of merit which they represented. The plan aroused an interest on the part of the pupils in the cards they received. The contributor believed the pupils had not manifested any similar interest before. The parents also thoroughly approved the plan. In addition, the expense involved and the clerical labor of the master in preparing the cards were trifling.

A hundred years were required for teachers to advance from the pioneer reporting just described to the very elaborate reports issued by many schools today. Yet, even today, reports of

pupils submitted to parents fail to fulfill the principles by which the practice is justified. Most school systems now make periodic reports of pupil progress to parents. The making of these reports necessitates the keeping of accurate records by teachers and involves much clerical labor.

There are probably very few teachers who would question the right of parents to receive periodic reports on the progress made by their children in school. As to whether the typical report card found in use in schools generally possesses sufficient value for pupils and parents to warrant the expenditure of the time and effort required of teachers for its preparation and distribution is at present a moot question.

Hill¹ reports the following reasons given by four very practical public-school administrators for favoring the elimination of the type of report card that has become the typical medium of accounting for the school progress of pupils to parents or guardians.

1. The report card is made out by overworked teachers who give little time or attention to the process.
2. There are some homes to which it is unsafe to send cards due to the punishment meted out to the child for poor work.
3. Many parents pay little or no attention to the cards.
4. The typical report card gives the parent a distorted view of educational objectives.
5. The report card serves as an incentive only to superior pupils.

The investigations of report cards on which teachers attempt to express evaluations of pupil progress to parents reveal a great diversity in reporting practices. There appears to be little agreement regarding the phases of progress on which evaluations should be attempted. In a like manner, great variation prevails in the use of evaluative marks or symbols, and in the interpretation of the marks or symbols used. The conclusion is evident; namely, that the reports are no better than the recorded data

¹ George E. Hill, "Improvement of Report Cards and Reporting," *Educational Trends*, III (April, 1934), 28-35.

on which the reports are based. Even so, the worth of the reports to parents and pupils is conditioned by the understanding of the evaluations made for their benefit. Great progress in such reporting, therefore, probably will not be made until the objectives of education and the bases of evaluation are understood by parents, pupils, and teachers.

Classification for instructional purposes

(The grouping of large numbers of pupils in city school systems has created problems of instruction which can be solved only by some method of classification. Even in small district schools where one teacher is responsible for instructing all the pupils who come, grouping for instructional purposes is found to be just as necessary as in the larger schools. Efforts to improve instruction through the classification of pupils were made before the idea of school grading as it is generally known today came into general use.

An early attempt to improve instruction through classification was made in New York City in 1868 when the superintendent, S. S. Randall, invited John Hecker, an exponent of phrenology and the philosophy of temperaments, to prepare a treatise¹ for distribution among the teachers of the city on the classification of individuals according to temperaments. The treatise contained what Hecker regarded as an educational panacea, namely, a plan for classifying school children into homogeneous temperament groups in the larger schools and for seating them in the smaller schools so that the individuals of different temperaments might occupy separate parts of the classroom. The methods of instruction employed by teachers were to be adapted to the needs of the respective groups. The group classified as belonging to the *nervous* temperament were to be given much review, since the type was supposed both to learn and to forget quickly; the instructors were advised to be very patient with the *bilious* group and to take

¹ John Hecker, *The Scientific Basis of Education*, p. xiii. New York: Published by the Author, 1868.

plenty of time in explaining because this type was presumed to learn very slowly; the *sanguine* group were to be placed in the room where they could not look out of the windows because of the tendency of these pupils to be disturbed easily; the *lymphatic* group should be privileged to sit near the windows because of their reliable character and seriousness of purpose.

Hecker thought that principals and teachers could be trained to classify children according to temperaments and he held that after the pupils in the larger schools were so classified, still further improvement could be made in instruction by classifying the teachers similarly and by assigning the teachers to classes in such manner that the temperament of teacher and pupils harmonized.

The idea was endorsed by some of the leading educators of the day but the plan failed to receive acceptance as a practicable administrative measure. The reason for the failure is not difficult to understand, since the four temperament types represented only dominant symptoms of personality differences and not real differences.

Classification as a means of improving instruction is now generally approved, although differences of opinion exist as to the best basis of classification. Most people will agree that successful grouping does not result from chance, mere attention to chronological age, general impression as to the ability of pupils, or personal favoritism. Considerable opposition exists to classification on the basis of intelligence quotient, mental age, educational age, and the like. If reliable records have been kept by a school, classification can be made on the basis of the personal and pedagogical knowledge of the pupils possessed by the principal and teachers. If individual pupils are found to be improperly classified they can be shifted to other groups whenever change seems desirable.

Since some form of classification is inevitable in the organization of pupils for instructional purposes, the issue of concern to the teacher is how well the basis on which the grouping was made really works. Advocates and critics of homogeneous grouping,

that is, grouping which classifies together pupils of like degrees of brightness and attainment, have in their contentions regarding the merits of the basis used, frequently lost sight of the effects of the grouping on the pupils. The effects cannot be evaluated solely by the subjective judgments of principal, teachers, and parents. Objective evidence must be assembled, analyzed, and interpreted. Data of the objective types can be secured only through the participation of the teacher in the compilation and study of accurate records of the classroom activities of pupils and by means of standardized tests.

Pupil accounting

The enactment of compulsory education laws by all the states has provided new motives for teachers to keep attendance records. Absence on the part of a pupil is carefully investigated and reports of unnecessary absence are made to attendance officers or visiting teachers whose primary function is to prevent the loss of school opportunities to pupils through irregular attendance. These officials not only strive to protect pupils but also to bring the home and school into effective co-operation in the interests of children. The record of attendance kept by the teacher thus becomes an important instrument in pupil accounting.

The responsibility for a full accounting of the advantages which pupils gain from schooling necessitates the expansion of records to include, in addition to attendance, measurements of scholastic achievement, changes in personal characteristics, and the development of special interests. As a result of this expansion, record-keeping not infrequently becomes time-consuming and complicated. The records tend to become clogged with unnecessary items. Unless the record forms are revised periodically the teacher may feel that many of the records are irrelevant to effective accounting.

The processes of pupil accounting must not be confused with the bookkeeping involved in recording the items of information called for in school registers and administrative forms. In the

latter type of record-keeping marks are set down to designate date of admission, transfer or withdrawal, days present or absent, scores made on tests, and the like. In the former, evaluation of the development or progress of the pupil must be made by the teacher.

Educational counseling

It is impossible for a teacher to evaluate the needs and abilities of pupils as subjects for guidance without comprehensive records. If the record system has been properly planned, it should provide the data needed in making a case study of each pupil. In schools where records have not been well planned or carefully kept, the data available may be virtually worthless for guidance purposes.

If the teacher is to make extensive use of records in counseling with pupils, it is evident that his time must not be monopolized with the clerical routine of compiling cumulative records. Competent clerical service should be provided in all graded schools to relieve the teacher of such routine. It is more important that the teacher acquire familiarity with the information regarding pupils contained in the cumulative records than to rate high in the clerical aspects of record-keeping.

Certification

The certification of pupils desiring to leave school for gainful employment, to enter colleges and universities, or to transfer from one school to another, requires that detailed records be kept of the age of the pupil, progress in studies, physical and health conditions, personal traits and characteristics, participation in extra-curriculum activities, and scores made on standardized mental and achievement tests. Not all the data specified will be requested by any single institution; virtually all will be needed if complete information is to be supplied to all the agencies and institutions entitled to receive certificates from the school.

Some notion of the character of the requests for information from employers of young people can be secured from an inquiry

addressed to fifty-six presidents, directors, and personnel managers in business and industry by the Research Department of the Kalamazoo Public Schools.¹ These officials were requested to answer the question, "What school records have value to former students in life that should be accumulated and filed permanently?" Forty-one replies were received from which were tabulated eighty-one items considered of sufficient importance by the individuals suggesting the items to be incorporated in the permanent record of each public-school pupil. Obviously, not all the suggestions received could be incorporated in a permanent record; yet the items of information proposed made possible the development of a record form that contained the information needed in meeting requests for information about pupils after they had left school.

If records are to have both immediate and deferred values, aiding pupils while in school and after leaving school, they must contain sufficient information for this purpose. The teacher who is called upon to assist in the keeping of pupil records will do so without a feeling of regret for the time spent if he knows that the data recorded will be useful.

Study of problem pupils

The study of problem pupils is greatly facilitated by adequate records. If the teacher is required to collect the facts when a pupil becomes a problem in learning or management, it is doubtful whether the pupil will receive adequate consideration. On the other hand, if the records contain the data needed in the study of the pupil, the chances that the individual pupil will receive prompt attention are greatly increased. It is therefore apparent that the existence of excellent records in a school encourages the teacher to study his pupils when they manifest symptoms of maladjustment.

¹ Russell Doney, *Suggestions for Permanent and Cumulative Records*. Bulletin No. C-100, Kalamazoo Public Schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan: May 26 1937. Pp. 19 (mimeographed).

RECORDS OF IMPORTANCE TO THE TEACHER

When pupil records have been prepared the effort should be made to preserve them in some form which will make them available even after considerable lapses of time. The individual records of teachers are likely to be lost. Even if they are not lost they are often difficult to interpret unless they are reduced to a common and generally understood terminology. The practice has therefore been gradually developing of making for each pupil what is known as a cumulative record.

Cumulative records

The importance of cumulative records for pupils first received emphasis in 1910 when individual differences began to find a place in the discussions of teachers. At that time pupil records of a continuous character were kept in few, if any, school systems. In 1911 the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association became interested in the question and appointed the "Committee on Uniform Records and Reports" to study the situation and to prepare a report. The following year the committee submitted a report recommending, along with other important report forms, a cumulative record card to be used during the residence of a pupil in a school and to be sent on request to any other school to which the pupil might transfer. The development of this record card and its subsequent adoption by many school systems aroused in teachers a new interest in records and reports.

Today most city school systems use some kind of cumulative record card for pupils. A study by the Association of Secondary-School Principals of California in 1937¹ revealed that of 534 secondary schools responding to an inquiry on cumulative record forms, all but 18 schools were using such a form. Great variation was found in the items of information included in the 516 forms,

¹ *Characteristics of Secondary-School Cumulative Records*. Preliminary Report, Association of California Secondary-School Principals, March, 1937. Pp. 19.

the range being from 5 to 9 items on 3 forms to 115 to 119 items on 11 forms. The median number of items was 42. Only one item of information, the name of the pupil, was common to all the cards. The 19 items common to half of the cards and the number of cards on which each item was found are shown in Table 18.

Items of greater significance to the teacher than most of those listed in Table 18 were found in fewer than half of the cards studied. Some of these items and the number of cards on which they were found are: scores made on achievement tests, 252 cards; pupil's telephone number, 243; marks in each subject by quarters, 236; meaning of marks, 232; mental age, 209; list of main subject groups, 201; occupational or special interest, 186; description of personality or character traits, 165; plans for further training, 131; absence summaries, 131; and average of periodic class marks, 124.

Further analysis of the items of information listed on the cards revealed that 253 of the cards provide space for recording ratings

TABLE 18. NINETEEN ITEMS COMMON TO HALF OF THE 516 CARDS IN USE IN CALIFORNIA SECONDARY SCHOOLS *

Items	Number of Cards
1. Pupil's name.....	516
2. Date of pupil's birth.....	481
3. Name of parent or guardian.....	465
4. Date of school entrance.....	420
5. Date each subject was taken.....	412
6. Name of school.....	405
7. Pupil's address.....	397
8. Place of pupil's birth.....	358
9. Date of graduation.....	356
10. Marks in each subject by semesters.....	318
11. Date pupil left school.....	317
12. School entered from.....	308
13. Names of achievement tests taken.....	293
14. Total amount of credits or units.....	283
15. Space for general remarks.....	281
16. Special achievements or free-time activities.....	280
17. Intelligence quotient.....	270
18. Health or significant physical traits.....	267
19. Date of taking achievement tests.....	267

* Adapted from *Characteristics of Secondary-School Cumulative Records*, *ibid.*

on personality or character traits. Sixty-three of the cards called for one trait; 38 cards, for 2 traits; 28 cards, for 12 traits; and 24 cards, for 6 traits. The median number of traits called for on the 253 cards is 5. The analysis reveals two distinct tendencies in the rating of personality traits — one tendency to list only a few traits (1 to 5), and the other to list many traits (6 to 14). The traits having the highest frequency of mention are: co-operation, 120; industry, 110; dependability, 102; citizenship, 80; initiative, 77; leadership, 64; emotional responsiveness, 53; health, 48; social concern, 45; and accuracy, 38.

A study of a wider sampling of schools but of a smaller number than was covered in the California study was made by the Office of Education.¹ Cumulative record cards used by elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools in 177 city school systems were analyzed. The items of information found through this study are more general than those found in the California study. Some variation in the relative importance of items at the different school levels is also noted in the findings (Table 19). Some variation is to be expected in the items, especially if the cards were developed for the particular unit of the school system in which they were in use and not for continued service in secondary as well as elementary schools. The findings indicate that in the systems studied the large majority of the cards were not developed with the idea of general use at both elementary and secondary levels. While it is the practice in most school systems to have the card follow the pupil from the elementary to the secondary school, as yet cards have not been devised in many schools to serve as a cumulative record throughout the school life of the pupil.

The cumulative record which follows the pupil when he transfers from one school to another or from one unit of the school system to another provides a continuous pedagogical history for study by the teacher. The information contained in the record

¹ David Segel, *Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record*. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 3, 1938. Pp. v + 48.

Frequency Forms of	Percentage of Frequency in the Cumulative Forms of	Frequency Forms of	Percentage of Frequency in the Cumulative Forms of	Frequency Forms of	Percentage of Frequency in the Cumulative Forms of	Frequency Forms of	Percentage of Frequency in the Cumulative Forms of
Items of Information	87	Items of Information	87	Items of Information	87	Items of Information	87
Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools
100.96	100	100.96	100	100.96	100	100.96	100
79.80	92	79.80	92	79.80	92	79.80	92
77.86	85	77.86	85	77.86	85	77.86	85
79.71	86	79.71	86	79.71	86	79.71	86
63.79	77	63.79	77	63.79	77	63.79	77
57.58	64	57.58	64	57.58	64	57.58	64
49.36	56	49.36	56	49.36	56	49.36	56
35.15	34	35.15	34	35.15	34	35.15	34
16.14	16	16.14	16	16.14	16	16.14	16
18.7	18	18.7	18	18.7	18	18.7	18
100.96	100	100.96	100	100.96	100	100.96	100
79.80	92	79.80	92	79.80	92	79.80	92
77.86	85	77.86	85	77.86	85	77.86	85
79.71	86	79.71	86	79.71	86	79.71	86
63.79	77	63.79	77	63.79	77	63.79	77
57.58	64	57.58	64	57.58	64	57.58	64
49.36	56	49.36	56	49.36	56	49.36	56
35.15	34	35.15	34	35.15	34	35.15	34
16.14	16	16.14	16	16.14	16	16.14	16
18.7	18	18.7	18	18.7	18	18.7	18
100.96	100	100.96	100	100.96	100	100.96	100
79.80	92	79.80	92	79.80	92	79.80	92
77.86	85	77.86	85	77.86	85	77.86	85
79.71	86	79.71	86	79.71	86	79.71	86
63.79	77	63.79	77	63.79	77	63.79	77
57.58	64	57.58	64	57.58	64	57.58	64
49.36	56	49.36	56	49.36	56	49.36	56
35.15	34	35.15	34	35.15	34	35.15	34
16.14	16	16.14	16	16.14	16	16.14	16
18.7	18	18.7	18	18.7	18	18.7	18

[illegible]

2. To determine what work a pupil is capable of doing
3. To provide learning activities suitable to each pupil
4. To formulate a basis for the intelligent guidance of pupils
5. To explain the behavior characteristics or unhappy conditions of any pupil
6. To make possible the development of unusual capacities or exceptional talents
7. To identify and make proper provisions for the mentally slow
8. To make assignments to committee work and monitorial positions
9. To make periodic reports correctly and on time
10. To be properly informed when conferring with parents and others about a pupil

Evidence with respect to the value of data contained in the cumulative record cards has been compiled by Adria Galbraith, who tabulated the instances of use of the visible record cards inaugurated in the Plainfield High School, Plainfield, New Jersey, in February, 1935, for a period of two months (October and November, 1938) by administrative officers, guidance functionaries, and teachers. The findings revealed that all records were consulted at least once during the period of the study. Forty-eight different individuals made use of the records, the total number of consultations being 2,509, or an average of 52.3 consultations per person. During the period approximately 45 per cent of the eighty-nine faculty members made use of the records, the individual consultations ranging from 1 to 70 times. Of the 540 different individual references to the records by faculty members, 80, or 15 per cent, were made by the four administrative officers; 91, or 17 per cent, by the five school counselors; and 369, or 68 per cent, by twenty-nine teachers.¹

¹ Arthur E. Traxler, *Guidance in Public Secondary Schools*, pp. 79-83. Educational Records Bulletin No. 28. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1939.

Cumulative folders

The cumulative record forms discussed in the foregoing section are intended to contain only a summary of the important information available regarding a pupil. It would of course be impossible to transcribe to a single form all the data collected by the teacher and the school with respect to any given pupil. Much of this information is essential in making diagnostic studies of pupils, in planning their work, in directing the development of their personal qualities, and in evaluating their progress. The information that cannot be entered on cumulative cards but is revealing as it is collected from day to day may be discarded by the teacher through whose hands it passes or it may be collected and systematically filed for use in the school system in which the pupils are enrolled. In general such a collected body of information is too bulky to be transferred from one system to another. An increasing number of school systems are, however, recognizing the value of such material for their own use and are providing for its collection in individual pocket-file folders.

The types of material that should be collected in such folders are the various standardized mental and achievement tests taken by the pupil; yearly interest questionnaires; records of physical examinations; accounts of tardiness and absence; family history; vacation experiences; correspondence between home and school; anecdotal incidents; and memorandum notes by teachers. These materials have immediate value at the time they are collected, studied, and filed, but they also have potential value for subsequent study as case data, if at any period in the pupil's school life it is found necessary to make an inventory of his progress and to trace his development from any given point.

The collection and filing of materials of the types described requires standard filing equipment and pocket-file folders for each pupil enrolled. The folder becomes the receptacle of the miscellaneous materials which school policy requires the teacher to preserve. The folder remains in the home room of the pupil and is

transferred to the receiving teacher when the pupil is promoted or transferred to another school in the system.

In some schools the cumulative folders are kept in the office of the school principal and are withdrawn by teacher or guidance officer when needed in the study of a particular pupil. Cumulative folders were so used in approximately one-third (38.1 per cent) of the 522 secondary schools studied by Reavis and Woellner¹ in an investigation of office practices in 1930. Evidently, the cumulative folder is considered to have value to principals in pupil administration as well as to teachers and guidance officers in instruction and counseling.

Laboratory schools of departments and schools of education in colleges and universities and training schools of teachers colleges very generally use cumulative folders for the collection of materials relating to the pupils' mental growth and personality development as well as to their achievement in subjects of instruction. The use of the materials is also especially valuable in the diagnostic study of maladjusted pupils. Most of the published educational case reports² have been prepared from materials systematically collected and preserved over a period of years in cumulative folders. Without systematic filing, such as the cumulative folder facilitates, the preparation of case reports would scarcely be possible.

Administrative records

In city school systems teachers are usually required to keep administrative records, such as lists of equipment and supplies, requests for budget appropriations, and, if money is collected or handled in connection with school responsibilities, an account of receipts and expenditures. Such records are important and must be carefully kept both as a protection to the teacher who is charged with the responsibility and as a convenience to the school

¹ W. C. Reavis and R. C. Woellner, *Office Practices in Secondary Schools*, p. 128. Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers, 1930.

² For examples see cases reported by W. C. Reavis in *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1926.

auditor or administrative officer who must make periodic inventories and audits.

The responsibilities for such records may be of minor concern to teachers in small schools and to teachers of certain departments. To the teachers of manual arts, household arts, laboratory sciences, art, and music the responsibilities for equipment and supplies are very great. The cost of such equipment and supplies may represent large expenditures and the teacher in charge must accept responsibility for the protection of the investment from loss and needless wear. Fees, such as cost charges for materials used by pupils and deposits to cover damages and losses, may necessitate careful bookkeeping on the part of the teacher in compliance with board or school regulations.

The so-called "academic subjects" in which instruction was formerly given from adopted textbooks, now require large outlays for collateral and supplementary books. These books may be charged to the teacher from a supply department or sent out as decentralized classroom libraries from the school library. In either case, the teacher must accept responsibility for the care of the materials. Since the chance of loss through careless and irresponsible use by pupils is great, a record system is usually devised which enables the teacher to fix responsibilities for books withdrawn by pupils for use at home.

In the keeping of administrative records the problem of the teachers is to fix responsibility without restricting use. Rigid restrictions on the use of school property by the pupils can easily defeat the purposes for which the materials are provided. The teacher must be guided by school policy but at the same time must so exercise his responsibility that he enlists the co-operation of the pupils instead of arousing their opposition.

REPORTS REQUIRED OF THE TEACHER

The rules and regulations are not very specific regarding the responsibilities of the teacher for the making of reports. A few

boards specify that the teacher must make written reports of cases of corporal punishment, cases of indigent pupils in need of school supplies, promotions made at the end of a semester or year, inventories of equipment and supplies on request of the central office, and periodic reports of enrollment and attendance. In addition to the foregoing, the superintendent may require a number of reports at intervals during the school year. Likewise, the school principal may call for a number of specific reports. In discharging these responsibilities it is essential that the teacher be prompt in meeting requests and that he submit the reports without error in the form specified by the officials making the requests.

Statistical reports

In the course of a year the teacher in most schools is required to prepare a considerable number of statistical reports, such as the periodic statements of enrollment and attendance, results of examinations and tests, funds received and dispensed, and the like. The preparation of such reports is facilitated by accurate records. If records have been carelessly kept, the simplest report may consume hours of time, worrying the teacher and irritating the principal or superintendent. Frequent recurrence of difficulties in the making of reports may result in the formation of a critical attitude by the teacher toward the responsibility and an unfavorable rating of the teacher by administrative officers.

Much time could be saved by prompt and careful attention to records and a check for accuracy at the time a recording is made. An elementary course in statistics would familiarize the teacher with the problems of handling statistical data and would render simple some of the matters that may be a persistent source of difficulty. Understanding of common statistical terms, such as median, mean, mode, range, quartile points, percentile rank, standard deviation, and coefficient of correlation eliminates many common errors in the preparation and interpretation of statistical reports.

Since some of the reports in modern schools deal with the evaluation of pupil progress, the teacher should have some training in testing and in the tabulation and analysis of test data. The teacher should be competent to criticize a test with respect to its validity, objectivity, and reliability. The ability to tabulate test results in ungrouped and grouped frequency distributions and to chart the results in line or bar diagrams will aid the teacher in the interpretation of the data, and is essential to the preparation of clear reports. If experiments in learning are conducted the teacher must be familiar with the preparation of test data for the purpose of making comparisons. The relationship between the test results for experimental and control groups should be understood in terms of deviation and correlation. The understanding of relationship between two sets of test scores requires some familiarity with statistical terms, such as those enumerated in the preceding paragraph.

The objections of the average teacher toward statistical reports will be removed if, as a result of the analysis of the data collected and submitted, new light is thrown upon the learning problems of his pupils. Furthermore, if the officials who receive statistical reports take the time to summarize the reports, pointing out the significance of the findings for the benefit of those who contributed the data, and if opportunities are provided for the fullest discussion of the findings and the issues involved, teacher attitude toward the making of such reports is certain to be still further improved.

Case reports

The teacher is seldom expected to prepare written case reports of pupils. When pupils become problems because of difficulties in management or in learning the teacher is frequently called upon for verbal case reports and in some instances for written reports. The teacher may even find it necessary occasionally to appear in court to give testimony regarding some pupil. Since most courts which deal with children of school age will seldom render an im-

portant decision involving the future status of a school child without a full report of the case from the teacher, it should be apparent that case knowledge is essential as a basis of any decision that may affect the welfare of the child. Accordingly the teacher is expected to be able to make case reports of pupils to principals and central school officers when a pupil is a subject for discussion and administrative decision.

The more progressive schools today regard case knowledge of pupils by the teacher essential to successful instruction. It has long been regarded as a truism in education that a teacher cannot teach content which he does not know. The present tendency is to consider knowledge of the pupil fully as important as understanding of instructional materials.

As a part of the pre-service training of the teacher, some experience should be provided in case study and case reporting. After the assumption of teaching responsibilities case reporting should be encouraged by administrative and supervisory officers who should use the study of the individual pupil as means of in-service training of the teacher in pupil accounting. When it is apparent to these officials that the influence of the teacher on a pupil is not satisfactory, a case report of the particular pupil may be made the topic of an administrative or supervisory conference in which problems are taken up that will lead to the growth of the teacher and the improvement of his influence over pupils in general.

Miscellaneous reports

In the course of a school year the teacher is required to make many written reports, ranging in character from routine statistical reports, such as weekly, monthly, quarterly, semiannual, and annual statements of attendance, petty cash, textbooks, and supplies to lengthy accounts of class projects, experiments, and curriculum improvements.

The tendency in recent years is to expect much participation on the part of the teachers in committee work in the study of school problems. The revision of the school curriculum is carried on

with committees of teachers, the findings of research are assembled by committees for the guidance of the faculty, administrative problems are frequently investigated and recommendations made to administrative officers for the solution of the problems. Most problems of professional welfare are solved through the co-operative participation of administrators and teachers.

The examples just mentioned of teacher activity in the solution of school problems are sufficient to show that the preparation of reports is no longer a routine responsibility of the "busy-work" type planned by administrative and supervisory officers as a perfunctory duty of the teacher. The preparation of reports should be a functional responsibility of the teacher in which the purpose is as specific as in any of the strictly personal duties of the teacher. Since modern schools are or at least should be conducted on the basis of reports, the teacher should acquire training, either before or after admission to the profession, that will facilitate the scholarly investigation of school problems; the collection, organization, interpretation, and presentation of data; and co-operative work with committees.

METHODS OF RECORD-KEEPING

The discussion of the responsibilities of the teacher for record-keeping would scarcely be complete if some suggestions were not offered on the methods of the bookkeeping involved in the preparation of records and reports. The teacher may wonder when and how all the labors can be performed without the neglect of his primary duty of giving instruction. While the evidence shows that the labors in question make heavy demands on the teacher, relief may be secured in a number of ways.

Use of marks and symbols

Since many of the records kept by the teacher must be brief and in the nature of summaries, the evaluations must necessarily be recorded by marks or symbols. The marking system of the

school is therefore an important matter in efficient recording. Daily records of pupil progress are still kept in many schools by percentage marks, the percentages for the week, the month, or the reporting period being carefully averaged and the progress of the pupil reported to the parent by the average mark. Some schools still compute a general average of all the marks, this average serving as a general index of the pupil's progress for the period specified. Many schools have questioned the method of evaluation indicated and have tried out other plans designed to improve the character of the evaluations and to simplify the keeping of the records.

That the question of the method of evaluating progress is still a problem to many schools is shown by the investigation of Billett¹ in the National Survey of Secondary Education. In a study of 258 outstanding secondary schools, he found the seven marking systems in use shown in Table 20. Even among the schools of the same city system, Billett reported great variation in plans of marking, only half of the systems using the same plan in both elementary and secondary schools and only four-fifths using the same plan in all the secondary schools.

TABLE 20. PERCENTAGE OF 258 SECONDARY SCHOOLS USING DIFFERENT METHODS OF MARKING *

Method	Per Cent
Letters or other symbols.....	81
Percentages.....	26
Class ranks.....	9
Percentile ranks.....	3
Written reports or logs of pupils' progress.....	2
Accomplishment quotients.....	1
Sigma scores.....	1

* Adapted from Billett, *ibid.*, p. 426.

As a means of increasing the reliability of the evaluations given to pupils by the different teachers of school systems, some schools

¹ Roy O. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion*. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 13. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 17. 1922. Pp. 172.

define their marking systems, others use the normal probability curve as a guide to teachers in awarding marks, and still others hold faculty conferences at marking periods.

The efforts to improve the character of marking are justified by the uses made of marks in many schools. Billett found eleven uses made of marks in the 258 secondary schools studied in the National Survey of Secondary Education.¹ These uses are listed with the percentage of schools reporting each use in Table 21.

In the light of the extensive usage made of marks and school records, the teacher should realize that when he engages in careful marking and accurate recording he is rendering an important service to the child. If there are evils in marking and in the use of marking systems, the road to progress does not lie in the abandonment of marking, as some individuals have proposed, but in the possibility of effecting economies in the teacher's own records by the adoption of a well-considered set of symbols, and the refinement of the marking system so that it will serve the many purposes for which it is used. The teacher must accept responsibility for helping to bring about the improvements desired.

TABLE 21. PERCENTAGE OF 258 SECONDARY SCHOOLS USING MARKS FOR EACH OF THE PURPOSES SPECIFIED

Purpose	Per Cent
1. Keeping parents informed of pupil's progress.....	95
2. Furnishing a basis for promotion.....	92
3. Furnishing a basis for graduation.....	82
4. Motivating pupils.....	75
5. Furnishing a basis for the awarding of honors.....	74
6. Furnishing a basis for guidance in the election of subjects...	61
7. Furnishing a basis for guidance in college recommendation..	60
8. Furnishing a basis for determining extent of participation in extracurriculum activities.....	52
9. Furnishing a basis for guidance in recommendation for employment.....	44
10. Furnishing a basis for awarding credit for quality.....	39
11. Furnishing a basis for research.....	19

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 449.

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CHAPTER VIII

COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITIES

THE relations of a teacher to the community in which he is employed are determined in part by the fact that he is a public servant and as such is subject to closer observation than he would be if his vocation were strictly private. As a public servant the teacher belongs to what may be described as a preferred class. The teacher is regarded as an example to youth and in some sense as an intellectual leader of the people of the community. He is not at liberty to indulge in practices in which many citizens may indulge without incurring general censure. At the same time that the teacher is thus elevated to a conspicuous position by his service to the community, he is also a social being desirous of associating with the better members of the community.

BASIS OF COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITY

When the teacher accepts a position in the schools of a district he assumes certain obligations which can be described by saying that he becomes responsible for conformity to the canons of private and public behavior which dominate the upper levels of society in that district. There are, for example, many small towns and cities in which the "better" people are devoutly religious or strongly favorable to a certain political faith. The relations of members of a small community are proverbially intimate. It would be folly for anyone to move into a community where practices are rigid and to begin to commit offenses against these practices. A teacher ought never to omit from his consideration of the

desirability or undesirability of a particular position full regard for the community in which he is to live.

Community demands on teachers

There can be no doubt that in not a few cases the community assumes a certain proprietary right to the time and energy of teachers that it does not assume, for example, in the case of a local merchant. The teacher is more like a clergyman in the eyes of many people than he is like a storekeeper. Even a local political leader has to think of himself as in some measure a marked individual. The local politician escapes, however, the obligation of standing as an example before boys and girls.

There is one attitude on the part of townspeople from which no public servant can escape. Since the public pays a salary to such a person it is likely to insist that he do his marketing in the town. Shopping in a neighboring city or through mail-order houses is regarded as taking local funds and spending them where they will do no good to the community on which the individual is dependent.

The attitude that a teacher should be loyal to local interests has in the minds of some people many implications which go far beyond the demand that all purchases be made in local stores. The teacher is expected in some places to teach in a local Sunday school, to interview parents at any time that suits the convenience of the parents, to respond generously to the demands of local charities, and, whenever invited to do so, to grace the gatherings organized by social leaders.

The attitude of some communities has been expressed in school-board regulations such as the following which prescribe that the teacher "shall identify himself with the church of his choice in the community," and, "shall be present at all functions and occasions required by the principal, superintendent, or board." The majority of the regulations pertaining to the social life of the teacher are in the nature of prohibitions, such as "shall not attend public dances, prize fights, or other similar exhibitions at any time,"

'shall not become a candidate in a voting contest," "shall not use tobacco or narcotics," and "women teachers shall not marry while under contract to the board."

Community standards

Many community standards not actually formulated in regulations are imposed on the teacher by the force of public opinion. Examples of such standards and the degree of approval or disapproval as reflected by the opinions of board members and teachers themselves are given by Greenhoe¹ in a study of the conduct codes of public-school teachers. A few of these standards are given in Table 22. This table also records the attitudes of

¹ Florence Greenhoe, "Community Contacts of Public-School Teachers," *Elementary School Journal*, XL (March, 1940), 497-506.

TABLE 22. PERCENTAGE OF BOARD MEMBERS AND TEACHERS GIVING APPROVAL AND DISAPPROVAL OF PERSONAL PRACTICES BY TEACHERS *

Practices	Board Members (356)		Public-School Teachers (9,122)	
	Men Teachers	Women Teachers	Men Teachers	Women Teachers
Owning an automobile.....	+ 61.3	+ 60.0	+ 64.4	+ 59.6
Dating a town person.....	+ 31.7	+ 28.9	+ 49.7	+ 46.5
Dating another teacher....	+ 19.6	+ 19.5	+ 35.2	+ 40.5
Leaving community over week end.....	+ 0.8	+ 0.9	+ 9.9	+ 5.5
Dancing at public dance...	- 23.9	- 26.4	+ 5.7	+ 4.2
Single teachers living in apartments.....	- 6.2	- 11.2	+ 24.6	+ 24.5
Receiving pay for coaching.	- 2.8	- 3.1	+ 30.4	+ 29.0
Smoking in private.....	- 9.8	- 46.2	+ 11.5	+ 11.2
Buying clothes, etc., outside community.....	- 8.5	+ 19.4	- 4.3	- 4.0
Joining teachers' union....	- 22.5	- 23.1	+ 9.1	+ 8.5
Not attending church.....	- 9.9	- 69.0	- 54.8	- 54.5
Smoking in public.....	- 48.1	- 80.7	- 25.2	- 61.9
Drinking alcoholic liquors..	- 80.1	- 81.3	- 71.8	- 73.2
Dating a student.....	- 86.0	- 85.7	- 84.4	- 86.4

Note: Plus indicates the percentage of approval in excess of disapproval; minus indicates the percentage of disapproval in excess of approval.

* Adapted from Greenhoe, *ibid.*, p. 503.

nearly ten thousand teachers on the subjects on which members of boards of education expressed themselves.

Examination of the facts ascertained by Greenhoe makes it clear that many teachers desire freedom in many matters in which board members are disposed to limit behavior. There is no violent disagreement between teachers and board members on what may be called common practices. When it comes to joining teachers' unions or receiving pay for coaching there is a clash of opinions that reflects radical differences in views. It is by no means clear that the self-interests of teachers are always legitimate grounds for their activities. The organization of teachers' unions has very generally been opposed by board members. On the other hand, the courts have generally upheld the unions. The best practice with regard to coaching seems to be that no teacher should accept pay if he is in any way influential in examining the pupil for school credit in the subject in which the pupil is coached.

The data taken from Greenhoe's investigation and such comments as are made in the foregoing paragraph tend to bring out the kind of questions that every teacher must think of when he undertakes the complicated task of fitting himself into the life of a local community. The implications of the investigation are that the conduct of the teacher is amenable to community opinion and that on important ethical matters the teacher must accept community standards. On matters of private concern, which do not involve ethical considerations, many teachers disagree, and doubtless have a right to disagree, with board members as to the standards of conduct that may properly be insisted upon. This disagreement may result in administrative friction in which the community may exert an important influence. Not infrequently petitions are circulated among school patrons demanding the dismissal of teachers who defy community standards pertaining to personal conduct. In the case of such teachers who are popular with pupils, strikes in some instances have been staged by the pupils in protest against the decision of the school officials to accept the petitions of the patrons as a cause for dismissal.

COMMUNITY INTEREST IN THE SELECTION OF TEACHERS

The opinions of members of boards of education with regard to the activities of teachers are of special importance because under the laws of all the states, boards of education have the authority of appointment and reappointment of teachers. There are many instances in which the judgment of a conservative member of a board has resulted in the failure of a teacher of liberal views to secure reappointment. The teacher may even be in agreement with the majority of the people in the community on some point but if disagreement arises with an influential board member the result is nonrenewal of appointment of the teacher. The member of the board of education in such a case is likely to think of himself as representing the community. The board is in fact the official representative of the community and the judgments of its members are therefore of great weight.

Community influence in behalf of local teachers

In one particular, boards of education very commonly have the full support of public opinion, that is, in the employment of home talent or teachers who have grown up in the locality. The young man or woman who has always lived in a given town and has the training and qualifications to teach in a local school will usually find the community sympathetic to his or her employment. The advantage in employing such a teacher is that he readily fits into the non-school activities of the community without any long period of initiation. The pupils in the school recognize the locally resident teacher and experience no shock in associating with a fellow citizen. Very often, however, the locally resident teacher is less well qualified than a teacher who might have been brought in from the outside. The members of the board of education are under pressure from their neighbors and acquaintances to recognize the economic needs of local families and to yield to the temptation to allow other than strictly professional considerations to weigh with them in making appointments.

It not infrequently happens that the plea for appointments of local residents is a cloak for concealment of political considerations which have no legitimate place in the determination of activities of boards of education.

Where pressure for appointments of local candidates is exercised to the exclusion of proper consideration of professional qualifications the public secures inferior services in the schools.

A careful study has been made in the schools of one state of the effects on school work of the employment of local teachers and out-of-town teachers. This study shows that it is true that teachers who are drawn from the community, especially in small communities, participate in more local activities, attend church more frequently, belong to more clubs, societies, and fraternities, and spend a larger proportion of their salaries locally than do teachers who are brought in from outside. However, in the really vital services, such as visitation of pupils who are sick, punctuality in teaching hours, attendance at summer schools, the earning of professional credits, membership in professional organizations, attendance at professional meetings, contributions to professional organizations, and the preparation and publication of educational articles, the teachers who come from the outside greatly surpass the resident members of the teaching staff. Furthermore, in professional qualifications and in merit ratings the nonresident teachers also excel.

The tenure of the resident teachers in the communities studied by Bratcher¹ surpassed that of the nonresident teachers. Evidently the public considers the cultivation of community relations by the teachers more important than superior professional services. Since school patrons and boards of education place such a high value on community activities, the suggestion is offered to teachers who reside outside the localities in which they are employed that increased participation in community affairs

¹ E. E. Bratcher, "A Comparison of Resident and Non-Resident Teachers in Village and Small City School Systems of Kentucky," p. 27. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1936.

would probably eliminate much of the local opposition to the employment of nonresident teachers.

A fact not generally thought of by teachers and communities which favor the restricting of teaching appointments to local residents is the influence of the policy on professional qualifications and the salary schedule. Invariably, the adoption of the policy by a local school system of appointing local candidates results in the acceptance of the professional requirements which local candidates are willing to meet and of salary schedules which they are willing to accept, both of which are generally lower than those in communities which employ teachers from the outside. The conclusion is supported by Bratcher's study¹ which revealed that the teachers from outside the community excelled the resident teachers in training and average salary. It also appeared that most of the positions of administrative responsibility in the school systems and positions on the high-school faculties where professional standards are set by accrediting associations were also held by nonresidents. It is therefore clear that overemphasis on local teachers tends to result in inferior professional status and lower pay.

Restriction of appointments to nonresident teachers

Some communities which have local applicants who are not well qualified and who in some cases have resorted to political pressure to retain their positions irrespective of merit, have adopted the practice of employing only teachers from outside. Some boards of education have even adopted resolutions against the employment of local teachers until these teachers have proved themselves competent in other school systems. While such regulations may impose a hardship on candidates who have had no experience but may possess qualifications, the policy is justified by the board and community on the ground of the general hazards which local appointments entail.

Perhaps a wiser policy would be for the board to fix a quota of

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 147.

new appointments each year which will be made from local applicants — for example, one out of three or four. Such a policy would have the advantage of fairness to local candidates and at the same time would recognize the professional obligations which every local school system has for making a contribution to the training of future teachers.

COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES AND SERVICES OF TEACHERS

Many times communities impose on teachers by asking them to render social services. The reasons for such impositions are easy to discover. Many people, perhaps most people, regard teaching as an easy job. The hours of the teacher are considered short in comparison with the working hours of most occupations and professions. The working conditions of teachers are also as a rule better than those of the majority of parents who send their children to public schools. Hence, it is only natural that the community should feel that it has a right to make demands on the teacher's out-of-school time. The teacher who responds willingly to these demands is soon favorably regarded by the persons accommodated or served; the teacher who evades or refuses to meet the demands quickly becomes unpopular with the community and the attitude of the community may be reflected in the attitude of the pupils at school.

There is an intermediate attitude somewhere between subservient acceptance of all demands made on a teacher's time and energy, and refusal to do anything for the community outside the school. After all, the teacher is a member of the community and owes to those around him as much in the way of public service as does any well-educated leader in social life. A serious defect in the training of teachers results from the fact that so much attention is given in the course of this training to methods of teaching and other matters that relate directly to the classroom that young teachers enter on their duties with no clear understanding of their responsibilities to the community for contributions to life outside the school.

Since most of the community demands made on the teacher involve out-of-school time and are nonremunerative, the teacher who graciously responds to such demands as he reasonably can enjoys the advantage of granting a favor. He turns the opportunity for service into a school-community contact of benefit both to the school and to himself. The possibilities of such contacts are almost without limits.

In order to discover what experienced teachers actually do by way of community services, an inquiry was undertaken in the course of which over 1,200 teachers in twenty-nine high schools were asked to make a record of their out-of-school activities.

It is not easy to classify the findings of this inquiry into altogether distinct groups of items but in general four groups of activities can be thought of as extending the teacher's function as an individual outside the school. These activities can be classified as educational, as religious, as civic and political, and as recreational.

If a similar study had been made of the nonremunerative activities of elementary-school teachers the results would have varied little, except that the time devoted to such activities by the elementary-school group might have been found to exceed the time spent by the high-school group. Criticisms that have been made in the past charging teachers with lack of participation in community activities have usually been directed toward the secondary-school group.

A list of 72 educational activities performed without remuneration by the secondary-school teachers was found through this investigation. Analysis of the activities shows that 28 can be considered as community services; 20, as concerned with pupil welfare; 17, as services related to the school and its work; and 7, as services to the teaching profession. Since the services are without doubt beneficial to both school and community, the effect on the relations of the school and community in general and the effect on the community standing of the individual teachers in particular are certainly to be thought of as favorable.

TABLE 23. EXAMPLES OF PARTICIPATION IN NONREMUNERATIVE EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY 1,292 TEACHERS IN 29 SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Activities	Number of Cases of Participation Reported
1. Interviewed parents of failing pupils.....	791
2. Gave special aid to backward pupils outside of school hours.....	481
3. Conducted educational excursions.....	266
4. Visited pupils in their homes when they were ill.....	265
5. Assisted athletes to keep up scholastic requirements....	234
6. Directed stage decorations for school and community plays.....	104
7. Assisted in community health campaign.....	99
8. Gave educational talks to teachers in neighboring com- munities.....	59
9. Helped parents with correspondence courses.....	17
10. Taught special health class to mothers.....	3

For purposes of illustration a few examples of these out-of-school educational services of secondary-school teachers are presented in Table 23. The table also reveals the number of times each activity was performed during the school year by the 1,292 teachers. For the 72 educational activities the total number of cases of participation was 9,122. In addition to the time and effort of the teachers devoted to these educational nonre-munerative activities the teacher group also reported contribu-tions of money totaling \$4,105 to the support of the activities.

The evidence presented clearly indicates that a large number of teachers today do not discontinue their educational work when they close classroom doors as has often been charged in the past and as is charged occasionally today by people who generalize from knowledge of individual cases. The critical question raised by the evidence is not whether teachers in general should perform the numerous educational activities and services which they now perform during their out-of-school hours, but how far teachers can thus devote their energies without detracting from the efficiency of their regular work. How far can teachers properly be expected to help parents? Are not some of the services undertaken in be-

half of pupil welfare by teachers, services which can and should be performed by other professional workers? The danger confronting the teacher is that he may spread his services over so wide an area that his fundamental responsibility of doing a first-class job during the school day is impaired because of inadequate recreation and neglect of professional study. Before going too far in the direction of becoming the community's after-school educator, the teacher should make a discriminating analysis of the out-of-school educational demands made on his time and then refuse to undertake those tasks that divert him from his major responsibilities to the school. It is far more important for him to be recognized as a superior school teacher by school officials, fellow teachers, and pupils than to enjoy the reputation of being a good community worker. No member of the profession can afford to be a mediocre teacher.

Religious activities

The religion of a teacher and his religious activities may properly be assumed to be matters of the individual's private concern. That such is not the case is generally recognized. Very few communities are sufficiently tolerant to overlook some of their religious prejudices. In recent years the legislatures of two states (New York and Illinois) have gone far in their effort to prevent discrimination against applicants for teaching positions in public schools on the ground of religion. They have enacted legislation prohibiting boards of education from making inquiry of applicants regarding their religious beliefs. Despite such legislation, constitutional guarantees, and the general effort of institutions engaged in the professional training of teachers to eliminate religious discrimination, the employment of teachers is strongly influenced by ecclesiastical affiliations.

Even if the teacher's employment has not been influenced by his religion, his position in a public-school system and his standing as a teacher may be jeopardized by his religious activities. Over-zealous individuals at times exhibit attitudes that give offense

or they give expression to views that arouse religious feeling among school children and their parents. The dangers of involvement in religious controversies in school and community have caused some teachers to be reluctant to identify themselves with religious activities in communities in which they are employed. On the contrary, some teachers have found church affiliation the easiest and quickest way of acquiring a status in the social life of a community. Not infrequently the teacher may find the demands of church activities excessively heavy.

Examples of nonremunerative religious activities in which teachers participated are specified in Table 24. For the twenty-two activities reported, the cases of participation totaled 1,815, or approximately 1.8 activities for each of the 1,015 teachers reporting. Two hundred and seventy-seven teachers reported no participation in church or religious activities. Four hundred and ninety-two teachers estimated that they contributed \$9,827 to the support of these activities, or approximately \$20 per teacher for the year.

Since the church, like the school, is a constructive institution with both social and educational functions, a close community relationship between the two generally exists. When most of the religious denominations of a community merge to form a com-

TABLE 24. EXAMPLES OF PARTICIPATION IN NONREMUNERATIVE RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY 1,015 TEACHERS IN 29 SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Activities	Number of Cases of Participation Reported
1. Taught class in Sunday school	157
2. Gave talks at church or Sunday-school services	138
3. Served on program committee	128
4. Sang in the choir	88
5. Served on ushering committee	68
6. Directed dramatic performance for church	66
7. Served as delegate to church conference	31
8. Directed church or Sunday-school choir	19
9. Delivered funeral sermon	11
10. Played instrumental music for funeral service	8

munity church the teacher finds it easier to establish a working relationship than when a number of churches refuse to co-operate and vie with one another in competing for the services of the teacher group. Desirable procedure for the teacher is not to avoid the church as a means of escaping the demands which it may make, but rather to use good judgment in participating only in those church activities in which he believes he can render worth-while services without sacrificing time and energy which properly belong to the school.

As a member of a church group in the community rendering nonremunerative services, the teacher occupies a position of advantage for the cultivation of wholesome relations with the church-going part of the community. The advantage has not always been utilized effectively in the past, because teachers have not been trained to think constructively of the relation. In recent years some school leaders have begun to organize and to direct the efforts of their teachers into channels which will improve public relations. In so doing school leaders have found that they must give instruction to teachers regarding the problems and policies of the school systems in which they are employed. This can best be done by encouraging the participation of teachers in the determination of school policies. Where a teacher becomes thoroughly conversant with the policies of the school system he is capable of serving as an important agent of school interpretation in any group with which he is identified. A teacher who is prepared to help in the improvement of public relations can do much to create better understanding and co-operation between church and school, because of the influence which he can exert among the church groups.

It is not here recommended that the teachers of a school system become propagandists for the schools in the churches with which they are affiliated, but rather that they represent the schools in a favorable light and utilize the opportunities that are presented for disseminating correct information about the schools, especially about school needs, problems, and policies.

The church activities of the teacher thus become the means by which understanding and co-operation between school and church are promoted.

Civic and political activities

Throughout the history of American education, the public-school teacher has been regarded all too frequently as an itinerant person. Many communities have a new teacher every year — sometimes several teachers a year. Poor wages, unsatisfactory living conditions, and intolerant attitudes on the part of factional groups have contributed in the past and unfortunately do in some places even today contribute to low esteem for the members of the teaching profession. Political activities are not expected of the teacher and, if attempted, may be considered grounds for dismissal. This is especially true if the teacher's political affiliation differs from that of members of the school board or that of influential citizens.

The improvement in the professional status of teaching in the last twenty-five years resulting from increased professional training, better wages, and the enactment of tenure legislation has done much to give the teacher a new standing in community life. While it is still true in far too many school systems that the teacher is a transient, teachers, in general, are more and more being accorded a stable place among other citizens. The change has enabled the teacher to become a participant in the political and civic activities of the community — a change that has brought many new opportunities and responsibilities.

While teachers undoubtedly have the same rights as other citizens they cannot overlook the fact that they are servants of the public and in a uniquely intimate relation to young people. Since the public is divided in its views on many public affairs and since the pupils in schools are susceptible to influence more than are adults, it is improper for teachers to engage in activities which are partisan. Any teacher who becomes a vigorous proponent of party politics steps so far out of the role of a public servant of all

the people that he lays himself open to criticism. Teachers can show their interest in civic affairs in many ways that have no taint of partisanship. Some of these are philanthropic; some are directed toward improvement of community life and to broad humanitarian purposes.

Analysis of the political and civic activities participated in by 1,111 teachers in 29 selected secondary schools reveals 44 different activities in which the teachers engaged. The number of cases of participation during a calendar year totaled 2,249, or approximately two activities per teacher reporting. Examples of these activities are presented in Table 25, to indicate the nature of the participation of the group of teachers studied. Of the 18 examples given in the table, 11 can be classified as civic and 7 as political. The teachers reported 994 instances of civic participation and 229 instances of political participation, a ratio of civic activities to political of approximately four to one. It is therefore evident that the teachers studied either took a greater interest in civic activities than in political or considered the political activities more hazardous than the civic and consequently ventured less into the political field.

It is highly questionable whether the teacher should consider it his responsibility to participate in political activities to the extent of assisting voters to get to the polls, to circulate petitions, to serve as the precinct committeeman of a political party, to make political addresses, or to serve as the chairman of a political party. On the contrary, it is difficult to see what objection could be raised if a teacher serves as an election official or as a delegate to a political convention. The practices reported in Table 25 indicate that the teachers in the 29 schools studied do not always avoid political activities which may result in the loss of professional influence in the community and in injury rather than benefit to school and community relations.

The examples cited show that the teacher must evaluate very critically the nature of the civic or political activity offering opportunities for his participation before rushing headlong into

TABLE 25. EXAMPLES OF PARTICIPATION IN NONREMUNERATIVE CIVIC AND POLITICAL ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY 1,111 TEACHERS IN 29 SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Activities	Number of Cases of Participation Reported
1. Assisted in collecting and distributing Christmas and Thanksgiving baskets to needy.....	472
2. Assisted in taking up collection for families or people who had suffered severe misfortune.....	128
3. Assisted in fire prevention and safety-first campaigns....	101
4. Assisted in community chest drive.....	96
5. Assisted voters to get to the polls.....	82
6. Assisted in community clean-up campaigns.....	75
7. Assisted with community improvement projects.....	66
8. Circulated a petition to obtain signers.....	59
9. Served as precinct committeeman of political party....	45
10. Assisted community in exterminating pests.....	26
11. Made political addresses.....	19
12. Assisted in setting up local work programs for relief of unemployed.....	16
13. Served as an election official.....	13
14. Served as a delegate to a political convention.....	7
15. Acted as mediator in labor dispute.....	6
16. Served on a jury.....	5
17. Served as chairman of a political party.....	4
18. Served as a member of a park or library board.....	3

the activity. There is danger that the teacher in response to the advice of administrative officers to contribute to the improvement of public relations may scatter his efforts unwisely among civic and political activities which might be performed equally effectively by people of different training and different relations to the public. Some activities when performed add little to the betterment of relations between school and community. A teacher's overeagerness to stand out as a citizen in the community frequently results in his becoming involved in activities that injure both his professional reputation and the cause of the schools.

Social and recreative activities

The extent to which the teacher can assist in social and recreative activities in the community is revealed in Table 26 in which examples are given of the participation of 1,237 teachers during a

TABLE 26. EXAMPLES OF PARTICIPATION IN NONREMUNERATIVE SOCIAL AND RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY 1,237 TEACHERS IN 29 SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Activities	Number of Cases of Participation Reported
1. Chaperoned school parties	421
2. Participated in community picnics	100
3. Refereed or umpired athletic contests	91
4. Chaperoned week-end trips of pupils	84
5. Chaperoned fraternity or sorority dances	56
6. Coached community athletics	33
7. Served as manager of town athletic teams	22
8. Directed community playgrounds	18
9. Served as member of town basketball team	17
10. Served as member of town baseball team	10

school year. These activities vary from the out-of-school parties, picnics, dances, and trips of pupils to community athletics and social events. In providing leadership and responsible supervision for all these activities the teacher renders services that often result in important by-product values to the school.

That many teachers recognize these opportunities for community services and accept responsibility for supplying school leadership is shown by the extent of their participation in the activities reported in Table 26. For the 19 different activities from which the examples were selected, a total of 3,007 cases of participation was reported by the 1,237 teachers, or an average of 2.4 activities per teacher. These teachers contributed not only their time to these community activities, but also financial support aggregating for the year \$28,537, or an average of approximately \$23 per teacher.

It would be difficult to appraise the influences of the services of these teachers on the social and recreational activities of the communities in which they are employed. For want of such services the social and recreational activities of young people in many communities are deficient or baneful. The high-school fraternity and sorority, boys' gangs, and other undemocratic and antisocial organizations usually have their origins in the failure

of the school leaders to provide a program of activities designed to satisfy the desires of young people for social experience and recreation in school and community.

It may be contended by some that the teacher should not be expected to give time, energy, and money to these out-of-school activities, that the responsibility for providing the service belongs to other adult members of the community. The professional teacher will usually take the position that in so far as his time and energy will permit, the sponsoring of social and recreational activities in which the pupils of the school are involved is a legitimate responsibility of the public-school teacher.

SERVICES TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

The modern urban community is usually well supplied with organizations which have for their purposes the welfare of their individual members and the improvement of community life. Many of these organizations supplement the activities carried on in the public schools. Teachers are desired by these organizations as members (1) because they usually make desirable and helpful members, and (2) because through teacher memberships the organizations are definitely identified with the work of the public schools. The linking of the personnel of these community organizations with the teaching and administrative personnel of the schools has contributed to improvement of school and community relations wherever such interlocking of personnel has been brought about.

Types of community organizations

The types of community organizations desiring teachers as members are adequately illustrated by the list presented in Table 27. In the twenty-nine communities from which these data were collected participation was reported in 34 different organizations by 1,246 teachers. The greatest number of teachers participating in any one organization was in local parent-teacher associa-

TABLE 27. COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS IN WHICH TEACHERS IN 29
SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS REPORTED MEMBERSHIP

Organization	Number
1. Parent-teacher association.....	530
2. American Red Cross.....	267
3. Miscellaneous fraternal orders.....	188
4. Masonic order.....	170
5. Federated Women's Clubs.....	89
6. Local sorority or fraternity.....	86
7. American Legion Post.....	80
8. Eastern Star.....	80
9. Y.W.C.A.....	76
10. Automobile club.....	61
11. Dramatic club.....	54
12. Y.M.C.A.....	38
13. D.A.R.....	32
14. Commercial club.....	32
15. Rotary Club.....	28
16. Kiwanis Club.....	25
17. W.C.T.U.....	24
18. Little theatre association.....	24
19. Civic opera or choral society.....	24
20. Town band or orchestra.....	17
21. Improvement association.....	13
22. Volunteer fire department.....	7

tions. The smallest number was in volunteer fire departments.

Some of the organizations are of international and national scope with local community units. Others are strictly local. That all exert local influence of varying degrees of power can scarcely be doubted. The influence of these organizations may be used in support of public schools or against school policies and personnel. The character of the influence may be largely determined in a community by the teacher representatives in the organization's membership.

Participation in community organizations

The nature of the participation of teachers in these organizations is revealed in Table 28. Here it is noted that almost half of the teachers who reported the character of their participation served on committees of the organizations. Nearly two-fifths contributed financial aid to the organizations; approximately a

TABLE 28. SERVICES RENDERED TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS IN WHICH 1,074 TEACHERS REPORTED MEMBERSHIP

Activities	Number
Member of committee.....	446
Contributed financial aid.....	406
Contributed to programs and entertainments.....	371
Contributed use of automobile or other property.....	298
Assisted in conducting research.....	258
Served as special speaker.....	240
Prepared articles for publications.....	87

third participated in programs and entertainments; and about a fourth contributed the use of automobiles or other property when needed. Approximately 25 per cent of the teachers holding membership in community organizations assisted with research investigations or served as special speakers, and one out of twelve prepared articles for publication. This list of teacher activities in community organizations reveals types of participation that must be greatly valued by the officers and members of the organizations served.

When the data on participation are broken down according to the sex of the teacher, it is found that the percentage of participation in community organizations is slightly higher for women teachers than for men. A slightly greater percentage of women than of men hold membership in parent-teacher associations. Men teachers have many more memberships in fraternal organizations and service clubs. The women hold more memberships in automobile clubs, dramatic societies, little theatre associations and civic opera or choral organizations. The contributions of the men to the support of the organizations exceeded by $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent those made by the women.

Regardless of the differences in participation of men and women teachers in membership and support, both should view their responsibilities to local organizations of the types under consideration as providing opportunities for acquiring an understanding of the community background so essential to the effective work of the school. If through participation in these community organ-

izations and their activities, the teacher obtains an insight into the community influences that are shaping the lives of the children, he will have acquired what the average teacher too often does not now possess.

THE TEACHER AND PRESSURE GROUPS

Quite distinct from the ordinary social organizations to which teachers are welcomed are others which in general have purposes related to education but do not include teachers in their membership. There are, for example, associations which are organized for the explicit purpose of securing reduction of taxes. These are in general made up of representatives of business concerns. They often operate as pressure groups seeking the enactment of legislation which seriously affects the schools. There are pressure groups which aim to control the curriculum. Often these are made up of well-meaning people who do not consult school authorities but seek to compel schools to adopt their ideas. Usually such pressure groups do not realize that it requires time and effort to organize new materials of instruction and that the introduction of a new subject into the school program dislocates other subjects that are indispensable.

Pressure on the schools comes not only from organized pressure groups but also from individuals who want to use the schools for propaganda. Commercial concerns and "faddists" of all kinds are constantly knocking at the door of the classroom seeking through pupils to influence the families of the community.

Organizations such as taxpayers' associations and economy leagues which make unreasonable demands on the schools must necessarily be opposed. When their demands are rejected they often resort to pressure and may even make personal threats on school officers. The leaders of these groups may proclaim lofty objectives and profess to serve the general welfare of the community, yet the methods which they employ are extralegal and at times ruthless.

The teacher should be fully informed regarding the active organizations and groups in the community in which he is employed, since their demands may affect his personal relations as a citizen, his professional status, and the character of his school work.

Demands that affect the teacher personally

The teacher may be very seriously affected by the demands of organizations which seek drastic reductions in the current expenditures of the schools without regard to the effect on school needs such reductions certainly have. Since approximately three-fourths of the current-expense budget goes to teachers' salaries, the living status of the teacher and his family may be greatly altered even by a moderate budget reduction — perhaps 10 per cent. Changes in salary schedules resulting from the demands of taxpayers' organizations, or the inability of boards of education to make needed adjustments in salary schedules of teachers may so seriously affect the personal status of a teacher that his relations with the community must undergo many modifications. It may not be possible under the changed salary conditions for the teacher to give his customary financial support to educational, religious, civic, and recreational activities in the community. Memberships in community organizations may have to be discontinued and time and effort formerly devoted to community services may have to be used for supplementary earning. Thus, the pressure group, often acting blindly and without regard for the effects, may through its demands greatly impair the personal status of the teacher.

Toward what may properly be thought of as pernicious activities on the part of taxpayer groups there are wise attitudes which teachers should cultivate. Taxpayers' associations, it is true, usually find taxes for education easier to attack than taxes for other purposes. In the first place, taxes for schools rest heavily on local communities. In the second place, the economic returns from school expenditures are so remote that it takes a high degree

of intelligent foresight to see how disastrous will be the consequences of reducing educational opportunities for young people. What should teachers do in the face of pressures by associations of taxpayers? In answer to this question it can safely be said that in the first place teachers should try to find all the ways that can legitimately be found to conduct schools with economy. Teachers should then seek to focus the attention of the public on the needs of pupils. It is true that three-quarters of school expenditures go for the salaries of teachers. Any reduction in school budgets is of personal concern to each member of the educational profession. The ordinary taxpayer knowing these facts is sure to attribute to selfish motives a teacher's opposition to reduction of school taxes. Teachers have a right and even a public duty, as was pointed out earlier, to emphasize the direct relation of salaries to the period of preparation which is required for efficient teaching. It is also proper to make clear to communities the need for books, laboratory, and shop supplies if schools are effectively to perform their duties. In short, pressure groups of taxpayers should be met by professional explanation of the needs of schools.

Selfish and partisan groups may seek to control some of the teacher's personal privileges, such as his vote, his right to free speech, his choice of church, his place of residence, and so forth. Personal restrictions may be even further imposed through the use of pressure on boards of education to enact regulations requiring teachers to do all their purchasing locally, to do no buying from "chain stores," to sign a pledge not to affiliate with the American Federation of Teachers, and to take an oath of allegiance.

The mere fact that the teacher is singled out as a citizen by such restrictions tends to undermine personal morale, to discourage loyalty to the community, and to invite halfhearted co-operation with local leaders. Under such conditions it is difficult for the teacher to participate enthusiastically in community activities despite his professional devotion to school responsibilities.

Demands that affect the teacher's classroom practices

The classroom work of the teacher may be seriously handicapped even by well-intentioned organizations when their demands force upon the schools instructional practices long ago recognized as obsolete. An example of a retrograde practice forced upon the schools in many communities is the demand made by patriotic organizations that the teacher avoid any discussion in school of controversial issues in economics, government, and politics. These organizations insist on the memorization of facts which appear to glorify all past achievements of the United States. They would insulate the minds of the pupils against the critical interpretation of controversial issues by tabooing the discussion of such issues, especially in the social studies. They fail to realize what is clearly pointed out in the *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence.

Since it is one purpose of the social studies to give pupils a realistic knowledge of society, and since that realistic knowledge shows as indisputable fact differences and clashes of opinion in society, teachers in this field must have generous freedom to present knowledge of differences of opinion and clashes of interest in the schoolroom. This freedom is not and cannot be absolute; nor is it to be used without reference to grade levels and other considerations; nor is it to be violated by using the schoolroom as a place to force personal opinions and dogmas upon the pupils; but freedom is necessary if teachers are to be loyal to knowledge. Otherwise their pictures of society would not be realistic, that is, true to fact.¹

Demands that affect the professional status of the teacher

The influences of political organizations and groups engaging in petty graft have affected the professional status of the teacher in some communities. Such groups regard teachers' positions in the local schools as political spoils. To secure appointment to a teaching position or to retain a position the teacher must resort to unprofessional practices. Some of the unprofessional practices

¹ *The Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 59. *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1936.

in which the teacher may be expected to engage are: bargaining for appointment or promotion, agreeing to board at a specified place, making contributions to campaign funds, canvassing the community in support of candidates sponsored by some member of the board, and promising to vote as specified by the person who sponsors the applicant's appointment.

If conditions such as those described in the foregoing paragraph prevail in a given community, the professional status of the teacher is certain to be low. High professional standing on the part of the teaching staff and low standards on the part of the groups which constitute a community cannot long exist together. Good teachers will be rapidly superseded by shysters if a community chooses to tolerate corrupt school practices on the part of selfish organizations or groups.

Relations with the parent-teacher association

The organization which can usually be depended upon to support the schools is the parent-teacher association. This association should at all times be fully informed regarding school problems and policies. Because of its knowledge of the schools, the association will understand the issues on which there is conflict between the demands of pressure groups and the interests of schools, and vigorous action can be taken by the association in behalf of the schools.

School officials and parent-teacher associations should not make the mistake of entering into aggressive conflict with all pressure groups which make demands on the schools. An effort should be made to provide such organizations with full information regarding the schools and to interpret school policies to the groups. If the membership of a pressure group refuses to heed educational leadership, persists in unreasonable demands on the schools, and resorts to unfair practices in attempting to enforce its demands, open resistance should be offered. However, the parent-teacher association, before resorting to hostilities with another community group, should offer information and seek to

develop the understanding of the group with respect to the schools. Neighborly counsel may result in the modification of pressure demands, and in some cases even result in the co-operation of the pressure group with the parent-teacher association.

No general rule can be adopted regarding the methods of meeting the issues created by the demands of pressure groups on the schools. The best policy for school officials and supporting parent-teacher associations consists in the cultivation of wholesome relations between school and community. If school policies are clearly understood by the community and information regarding the school is adequately disseminated, many of the conflicts with pressure groups will no doubt be avoided.

The parent-teacher association can serve as an effective intermediary between the school and pressure groups: (1) by disseminating correct information about the school; (2) by interpreting the policies of the school in the community; and (3) by offering determined resistance to unreasonable demands made upon the school.

Importance of understanding social organizations and needs

More fundamental than membership in community organizations is the understanding of broad social needs. In general, teachers have devoted themselves so exclusively to the study of the subjects which they teach that they do not realize how far society in its evolution has moved away from many of its former beliefs and practices. Pressure groups are not infrequently the means which society adopts of overcoming the conservatism of the schools.

Professional information can be given to the community in ways that are convincing only when teachers know much about the organization and needs of society. There has been of late a great deal of emphasis on the need of instruction of pupils with regard to society, its evolution, and its present state. The fact that pupils have in the past been inadequately instructed in such matters is directly related to the lack of contact of many teachers

with the social sciences. The most important need in the schools where teachers are being prepared is for courses which will acquaint members of the educational profession with society.

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PART II

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONS OF
THE TEACHER

CHAPTER IX

THE TEACHER AND THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

MANY teachers are unaware of the important role that the Federal Government has assumed and is increasingly assuming in education. The standardized expression "education is a function of the state" is so generally accepted that teachers are unlikely to realize that the Federal Government also assumes a responsibility for providing educational opportunities. In the discharge of this responsibility by the national government teachers are affected much more than is ordinarily supposed.

The relationship of teacher and the Federal Government becomes more apparent when the workings of a typical school system are surveyed. It is highly probable that the typical school system is being supported partially by permanent school funds originating from federal grants of land. In the second place, if the school system has availed itself of the support afforded by the Smith-Hughes Act, some of the teachers are having their salaries partially paid by federal funds. Perhaps, the teacher of the typical school system is conducting classes in a school building financed in part by the Works Progress Administration. The teacher may be spared a considerable amount of clerical and other routine work because of assistance by National Youth Administration students who are paid by federal money. In the typical school one may find many teaching aids that are supplied without cost or at very nominal cost by federal agencies.

Despite the fact that education is considered a function of the state, the Federal Government does exert a strong influence over

many phases of education that both directly and indirectly affect the teacher. It is part of a teacher's professional responsibility to understand the origin, development, and trend of federal participation in education.

THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION

The Constitution of the United States is conspicuous by its omission of any direct provisions or specific references concerning education. Moreover, the Tenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution, ratified in 1791, provides that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." These facts may at first cause one to conclude that the Federal Government possesses no constitutional authority to promote and to control education in the states, and that such authority resides exclusively with the states and the people thereof.

A careful study of the Federal Constitution, however, will reveal a number of provisions which may be, and have been, interpreted as authorizing the Federal Government to participate in promoting and controlling education. For instance, the authority of Congress to grant lands and to authorize the expenditure of federal funds for the promotion of education in the states is derived chiefly from the Preamble to the Constitution which states that one of the purposes for the establishment of the Constitution is the "promotion of the public welfare," and from Article I, Section 8:1 which authorizes Congress to "collect taxes to provide for the general welfare of the United States." Another provision of the Constitution which may be interpreted as conferring considerable authority upon Congress with respect to education is found in Article IV, Section 3:2 where it is stated that "The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States." If money in the

federal treasury be regarded as property — as has been done by the Supreme Court of the State of Illinois — the above provisions clothe Congress with almost unlimited power in collecting, expending, and regulating funds for educational purposes.

Numerous other implied references to education may be found in the Constitution, which empower the Federal Government to participate in the promotion of education. The National Advisory Committee on Education lists fourteen different excerpts from the Constitution which have in one way or another affected educational development in the United States.¹

There have been but relatively few decisions by the Supreme Court of the United States on the subject of federal participation in education. These few decisions, however, indicate that the Federal Government has almost unlimited power to promote and to control education if it so desires even though the word "education" cannot be found in the Constitution.

It has been assumed in some quarters that the Constitution permits the Federal Government to make grants and expend funds for educational purposes but that the authority for control of all educational operations is vested only in the states. A contrary view is expressed in a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States where the court sustained the power of the Federal Government to enforce restrictions and stipulations in land grants to the states. The court said in part "The United States, being the grantor of the lands, could impose conditions on their use, and have the right to exact performance of the conditions."² From this decision it may be inferred that Congress has authority to prescribe the conditions under which it will grant subventions to the states, and that it has the authority to enforce the conditions prescribed.

¹ *Federal Relations to Education*, Part II: Basic Facts, pp. 4-9. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education prepared by David S. Hill and William A. Fisher. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931.

² *Ervien*, Commissioner of Public Lands of the State of New Mexico, v. United States, 251 U.S., 41-48 (1919).

With these broad interpretations of the provisions of the Federal Constitution it becomes apparent that the teacher as such has an intimate relationship with the Federal Government. Already, the Federal Government has, with judicial sanction, participated in education to the extent that teachers of practically every school system have been definitely affected. How much more our Federal Government may promote or even control education in the future is a matter of speculation. The recent trend is definitely toward a rapid and increased participation. Certainly, members of the teaching profession should be greatly concerned in acquiring information and in exerting influences which will cause the government to function for the greatest benefit of the school and the people.

FEDERAL AID TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

Since the Federal Constitution does not prohibit the Federal Government from participating in public education, the United States Congress has passed numerous acts which have greatly influenced the type of our present educational system.

Land grants

The granting of lands marks the beginning of federal participation in education. The custom of making grants of public lands for the endowment of education antedates the drafting of the Constitution. The Congress of the Confederation, by the Ordinance of 1785, provided that the sixteenth section of every township in the newly surveyed land of the West should be reserved for the support of public schools. After the adoption of the Constitution this policy was confirmed.

The members of Congress were acutely aware of the problems which confronted the pioneers who were moving into the western wilderness. The desire to help the pioneers to keep alive the traditions of civilization expressed itself in the pronouncement made in 1787 which has been quoted again and again by those

who seek the support of high authority and lofty sentiment in emphasizing the importance of schools: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

As a substantial contribution to the ideal thus expressed, Congress reserved the sixteenth section in every township in the Northwest Territory as school land. When later states were created out of the Northwest Territory and also when new states were created out of other parts of the public domain this policy was continued. By 1850, when California was admitted, two sections of each township were set aside for school support.

An example of federal support of education is the grants of land made in 1862 for the purpose of encouraging the development of the science of agriculture and of the mechanic arts. These grants were made in wartime when the food supply of the nation was in jeopardy and when the profession of engineering was in its infancy. A need more urgent than that of 1862 can hardly be conceived. A great national crisis was at hand, and the states could not meet this crisis. Assistance from the central government was absolutely essential.

With the income from the lands given for the development of agriculture and the mechanic arts, the states established the institutions now known as the land-grant colleges. There can be no doubt that the United States has received from the land-grant colleges important contributions of knowledge and a body of trained men and women who have greatly benefited the nation. While much has been gained, it is equally true that the development of these colleges resulting from the federal assistance given them has tended in some of the states to disturb the equilibrium of the institutions attempting to provide higher education.

Money grants

The early federal grants were not restricted to lands. In 1837 Congress distributed the surplus revenue in the United States

Treasury. The amount was \$28,000,000 and was distributed in the form of a deposit and prorated among the states according to their numbers of representatives and senators in Congress. Some of the states devoted all or part of their respective shares to the support of schools. Although these funds, like those accruing from land grants were often maladministered, they constituted an important factor in the development of public education.

Government control

It is important to note that Congress placed no restrictions upon the states in the management of the early grants which it made for common schools. The change in policy which was adopted when grants were made during and following the Civil War is evident and of far-reaching importance. Grants were continued but for specialized types of education, with Congress determining the types. With the first Morrill Act in 1862, the Federal Government began to exercise some degree of control by means of allocating the funds for specific phases of education. The act stipulated that grants of land were to be made to the states for the endowment and support of colleges "to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." The colleges receiving the grants were expected to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts. The money made available by the second Morrill Act of 1890 could likewise be applied only to instruction in certain specified fields.

Numerous other acts were passed by Congress in which federal grants were made to the states for educational purposes. Chronological and detailed accounts of these acts may be found in texts dealing with the history of education in the United States and in recent national committee reports. Several of the acts, however, should be considered here because of their direct bearing upon school administration, the teacher, and the curriculum.

With the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, Congress began to provide for co-operative extension work in agriculture

and home economics for persons not attending land-grant colleges or universities. The significant feature of this act is its stipulation that in order to participate in the federal appropriations the state and local authorities must make available an amount of money equal to that received from the Federal Government. It was with the passage of this act that the idea of "matching funds" was adopted as a fixed policy. The principle of matching funds was first adopted in 1911 in a minor federal appropriation providing for marine education.

Many persons engaged in the educational profession disapprove of this type of federal control, holding that the state's educational program is quite certain to be thrown out of balance because of the necessity of deflecting state funds in a specific direction in order to meet federal requirements for the matching of the federal money.

The largest measure of federal control over education in the states was enacted with the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act which was originally passed in 1917 and is designed to aid vocational education. That the measure affects the teacher is evidenced by the fact that it requires the approval by federal authorities of state plans for courses of study, the preparation of teachers, and even the allocation of the time of pupils. The provision of the act which makes these stipulations effective and which constitutes the source of criticism by educators is that which requires the state school systems to submit acceptable programs for vocational education before they can receive the funds appropriated by the Federal Government.

The objections raised by many members of the teaching profession in opposition to the original provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act are partially responsible for the provisions regarding matching of funds contained in three laws supplementing the original vocational act. They are the George-Reed Act (1929), the George-Ellzey Act (1934), and the George-Deen Act (1936). The George-Deen Act is the most significant of these supplementary laws as far as the relationship of the teacher and the

Federal Government is concerned. Whereas, under the original Smith-Hughes Act the federal funds were to be matched dollar for dollar, the George-Deen Act has reduced the requirements for matching funds. The act requires matching of funds for the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors only to the extent of 50 per cent of the federal funds each year until 1942, and then 10 per cent additional each year thereafter until a maximum of 100 per cent matching is reached. In teacher-training, however, the George-Deen Act requires matching on a dollar-for-dollar basis from the beginning.¹

THE ADVISORY COMMITTEES ON EDUCATION

The organized efforts of teachers and school administrators are effective in attracting the attention of federal authorities to the problem of federal participation in education. The resolutions adopted annually by the National Education Association, the American Association of School Administrators, and other organized groups of educators are not unheeded by federal officials. The published reports of these professional organizations have also been instrumental in increasing the federal interest in education.

First National Advisory Committee on Education

The viewpoints of educators have not been the only ones submitted to the Federal Government for consideration and proposed legislation. Numerous organizations and vested interests have been represented in making appeals for a new and expanded policy of federal participation in education.

A desire to consider the requests for federal action on the basis of facts rather than on the basis merely of conflicting opinions and interests was manifested by the President of the United

¹ John Dale Russell and Associates, *Vocational Education*, pp. 21-23. The Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 8. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

States, Herbert Hoover, in his annual message to Congress on December 3, 1929:

In view of the considerable difference of opinion as to policies which should be pursued by the Federal Government with respect to education, I have appointed a committee representative of the important educational associations and others to investigate and present recommendations.¹

In accordance with the President's order an advisory committee was appointed; this committee was composed of fifty-two citizens, chiefly those engaged and interested directly in education. Many conferences were held by this committee and its subcommittee, many documents were consulted; and numerous special consultants contributed facts and suggestions. After considerable research, discussion, and study the committee presented its report in 1931 in two volumes.²

Part I presented the Committee's Findings and Recommendations; Part II presented Basic Facts underlying Part I. The complete document is a careful and valuable presentation of the historical and legal aspects of federal participation in education. It should be studied in its entirety by all engaged in the teaching profession and others who are concerned with the future educational policies of the United States.

Consideration of the 1931 document by the Federal Government was interrupted by a variety of events, chief of which was the disastrous effect of the depression upon education. The seriousness of the situation was evidenced by subsequent action of President Hoover, in which he called a Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education. As the depression became worse many schools were closed, many teachers were dismissed, some were unpaid, and nearly all were underpaid. "The problem was met on an emergency basis by the creation of various new agencies

¹ *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I: Committee Findings and Recommendations, p. 1. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931.

² *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I: Committee Findings and Recommendations, *ibid.*; Part II: Basic Facts, *op. cit.*

whereby unemployed teachers and unemployed youth were given some assistance from the federal government."¹

Second National Advisory Committee on Education

In 1936 President Franklin D. Roosevelt appointed a second national committee which he instructed to study vocational education. The unemployment situation in the country had led Congress to pass the George-Deen Act increasing the funds made available for vocational education. There was, however, so much criticism of the administration of federal funds devoted to vocational education that the President was reluctant to give his approval to the new appropriation. He created a committee to advise him with regard to vocational education. The committee thus appointed found after it had begun its investigations that it could not make an intelligent report on vocational education without extending the scope of its inquiry to cover all aspects of education. It reported this conclusion to the President with the request that the functions of the committee be enlarged. The President approved the request of the advisory committee to extend the scope of its investigation to cover "the whole subject of federal relationship to state and local conduct of education."

After receiving the enlarged commission from the President, the committee worked steadily from September 19, 1936, until the filing of its report with the President on February 18, 1938. During this period a competent staff under the direction of Professor Floyd W. Reeves, the chairman of the committee, assembled pertinent data and drafted a report. The report was printed as House Document, No. 529, Seventy-Fifth Congress, third session. It was also printed and made available for public use.²

The general report of the committee was supplemented by a

¹ Howard A. Dawson and William G. Carr, "Federal Relations to Education: A Review of the Work of the Advisory Committee on Education," *Educational Record*, XXI (January, 1940), 15.

² Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. xii + 243.

score of technical staff reports, the last of which was published in 1939. The nature and scope of the committee's publications may be ascertained from some of the captions included in the bibliography at the close of this chapter. Because of the nominal cost and the authentic information of these reports, they should be made available to all who are interested in education. Copies can be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

Briefly, the main findings and recommendations of the advisory committee are that (1) there is a great difference between the financial abilities of the various states to maintain public schools with the result that the opportunities of prospective citizens of the United States to secure education are very unequal; (2) the states which have the least financial resources are those which have the heaviest load of pupil population to carry; (3) the areas in which schools are least well supported are those in which the facilities for the development of the intellectual life of the people are most meager; (4) there is special need for national consideration of the education of rural youth and of Negroes; (5) the provision of additional financial resources is, in a large number of cases, not reasonably possible on the basis of local and state effort alone; (6) the Federal Government ought to take prompt and appropriate measures, including the granting of financial aid, to relieve this situation; and (7) the administration of schools should be reserved explicitly to state and local agencies.

In commenting on the conclusions of the advisory committee, Dawson and Carr state:

These conclusions are not the offhand opinions of a small group of professionally interested persons. They are the deliberate judgments of a broadly representative group of citizens who have had before them one of the finest collections of evidence regarding the American school system that has ever been assembled. The conclusions are, to all intents and purposes, the unanimous conclusions of the entire committee, representing labor, religious groups, women's organizations, business, agriculture, education, and government. . . . The committee has done its job with technical skill and broad social vision. The next

move must come from the people of the United States and their representatives in legislative and executive branches of the federal government.¹

Results of the advisory committee reports

The advisory committee did not itself introduce legislation pertaining to its report. Such action, however, has been taken by the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association, the purpose of which was chiefly to obtain federal aid for augmenting and equalizing educational opportunity of the several states.

Following the report of the advisory committee the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association drew up a bill in accordance with the recommendations contained in the report. The first bill was the Harrison-Thomas-Fletcher Bill introduced in the Seventy-Fifth Congress. Although it had strong support it failed to become law. Likewise, the Harrison-Thomas-Larabee Bill failed to pass Congress. Senate Bill 1305, known as the Harrison-Thomas Bill for Federal Aid to Education was presented to Congress in 1940 but did not receive attention because of the defense program. The bill was based on the major recommendation of the President's Advisory Committee on Education. In general, it requested appropriations to provide more effective educational programs for the states. Although the bill was debated and amended no further action was taken.

Other bills to secure the aid of the Federal Government for education have been considered by the Congress. House Bill 3517 asked for the equalization of educational opportunity through federal grants-in-aid. Senate Bill 3170 aimed to provide vocational guidance, vocational training, and "employment of opportunities" for youth. House Bill 9579 asked for a ten-year program of federal assistance to the states for public-school buildings and equipment according to needs as determined by surveys and studies.

¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 26.

The provisions of the educational bills that have been presented to the Congress are wholly in accord with, and justified by, the existing facts as revealed by the advisory committee reports. However, the fate of the bills was described in an editorial comment as follows, "these bills, like the others, are still in committee and will probably stay there until the end of the session, when they will automatically be 'killed.'" ¹

The failure of the Federal Government to take any definite action in carrying out the recommendations of the advisory committee has been the cause of much concern and disappointment to educators, particularly to the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association. A statement unanimously adopted by the commission indicates the disappointment which educators feel, that it has been impossible to secure new legislation for public education.

We are strongly of the opinion that action on the proposed legislation should no longer be delayed. We urge the President to lend this measure his active support, to grant to public education an open and democratic consideration, and to secure as soon as possible the enactment of legislation in substantial agreement with the pending Senate Bill. Such action will strengthen the fortress of economic security, reinforce the bulwark of good government, give vitality to the national defense, and show abiding faith in the long future of American democracy.²

With the enormously increased appropriations for military defense it appears improbable that any immediate action will be taken by the Federal Government to increase federal aid as recommended by the advisory committee. Educators argue, however, that now is the time for more vigorous federal aid for education, especially in those states and communities where there are insufficient funds to finance an adequate program. The

¹ "The Present Status of Educational Bills in Congress," *School and Society*, LI (June 8, 1940), 725.

² "The Present Status of Federal Aid," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX (April, 1940), 107.

first line of defense of any nation — particularly a democracy — is its educational system.

Teachers' organizations have been active in calling attention to the needs of the country for better and more completely equalized support of education in the different parts of the nation. It is not easy to see how they can do more than carry on as vigorously as possible the campaign of informing the public of the country's needs. The hopeful sign which should encourage teachers is that modern conditions are creating a new awareness of the importance of youth and of the necessity of giving youth the kind of preparation that will make the future of democracy safer than it seems to be at the present.

EMERGENCY EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

New types of federal participation in education have emerged within the last decade that are destined to play a prominent part in the future educational program of the United States. Although they were introduced chiefly as emergency measures to offset the deplorable conditions caused by the depression of the 1930's, they have proved to be so satisfactory in fulfilling educational needs as perhaps to justify their perpetuation as a part of a national scheme of education.

Among the agencies established to administer various phases of relief there are three which have a direct influence upon school systems and have therefore an important effect on the activities of the teaching personnel. These three agencies are (1) The Works Progress Administration, (2) The Civilian Conservation Corps, and (3) The National Youth Administration.

Works Progress Administration

The Federal Emergency Relief Administration authorized, in 1933, the expenditure of relief funds in the employment of certain needy unemployed teachers or other persons competent to teach. These teachers had been previously assigned to elementary

schools in rural areas where many schools were closed or programs were curtailed because of lack of funds. Although the undertaking was to be financed by federal funds, the supervision of the program was delegated to state educational authorities.

Shortly after this original measure was authorized, a further expansion of activities was effected.

The educational activities of the relief program were extended to include vocational training of unemployed adults, vocational rehabilitation of unemployed physically handicapped adults, . . . workers' education classes, nursery schools under the control of public school systems, adult education in prisons, resident schools and camps for unemployed women eligible for relief, part-time employment of college students in need of aid, and parent education.¹

The Works Progress Administration was established by executive order on May 6, 1935 and was an independent agency of the government until July 1, 1939, at which time it and its functions (except the National Youth Administration and its functions) were transferred to the Federal Works Agency. The name was then changed to Work Projects Administration.

The educational activities of this agency are many. They are explained in detail in one of the staff study reports of the Advisory Committee on Education.² Under the division of education projects the following major activities are listed:

1. General adult education
2. Literary and naturalization classes
3. Avocational and leisure-time activities
4. Vocational education
5. Nursery schools
6. Homemaking education

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Federal Activities in Education*, p. 88. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1939.

² Doak S. Campbell, Frederick H. Bair, and Oswald L. Harvey, *Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 14. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. xiv + 185.

7. Parent education
8. Public-affairs education
9. Workers' education
10. Correspondence instruction
11. Other educational activities

These educational activities are conducted by means of forums, discussion groups, panels, lectures, classes, educational tours, and laboratory and shop exercises. Use is made of the public schools, libraries, museums, radio stations, and other agencies. Books, periodicals, pamphlets, and mimeographed materials are employed when available, and new materials particularly adapted to the needs and purposes of the persons receiving the instruction are prepared.

The relationship of the Work Projects Administration to the teacher is indicated in numerous ways. For example, attention has been given to the in-service training of teachers in accordance with the particular types of work assigned to them. During the summer of 1938, seventy-two summer-training institutes and schools with sessions extending from two to six weeks were held for this purpose in colleges and normal schools. With such opportunities it was possible for many teachers to receive the necessary credit to keep alive teaching certificates.

Assuming that the teacher is concerned with the type and condition of the school buildings, the relationship between teacher and federal agencies may be illustrated further. The Work Projects Administration engages in construction projects which include the construction and repair of school buildings and libraries and the construction of recreational facilities. A great deal of emergency public work and large amounts of work relief funds have been, and continue to be, used in the financing of school buildings and other educational buildings. Up to the end of 1937, the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works had authorized grants totaling \$263,000,000 for the construction and repair of educational buildings. To this amount are to be added loans amounting to \$83,000,000.

Available data on enrollments and employees indicate further the expansive educational program of the Work Projects Administration. For the education and training projects alone, during the month of March, 1938, 34,097 persons were employed on educational projects in the states. Of these, 95 per cent were certified by relief agencies as in need of relief. Over 80 per cent of the total were employed as teachers, about 5 per cent were in supervisory positions, and the remaining 15 per cent were principally clerical workers and workers in charge of maintenance.

During the same month, a total of 1,416,307 persons were enrolled in classes in adult education; 44,190 young children were enrolled in about 1,500 nursery schools; and 903,912 persons were reported as attending meetings other than regular classes, such as forums, lectures, and special programs of all kinds.¹

Civilian Conservation Corps

When the Civilian Conservation Corps was created in the spring of 1933, its primary objectives were the furnishing of employment to idle young men and the conservation of natural resources — particularly the forests, parks, roads, and fields in need of soil conservation. The education of the young men was originally a secondary objective, but in a short while it became obvious that the C.C.C. organization provided an opportunity for the education of youth not yet furnished by our public schools. The idea that education is important for youth is conveyed in a statement of the National Advisory Committee on Education:

The Civilian Conservation Corps was originally established to further purposes of relief and conservation. Its possible educational values were thought of merely as incidental by-products. It soon became evident, however, that the educational needs of the enrollees were great. It was found that 84 per cent of them had not completed high school, 44 per cent had not completed the elementary grades, and many were practically illiterate. Almost half of them had never before been engaged in regular employment, and most of them were

¹ *Federal Activities in Education, op. cit.*, p. 94.

greatly in need of occupational instruction and employment counseling and guidance before completion of their terms of enrollment.¹

The enrollment in the C.C.C. camps indicates the extent of this experiment and the commitment of the Federal Government in providing greater educational opportunities. From its organization in 1933 to 1940 the corps enrolled over 2,000,000 young men.

All of the enrollees were unemployed and out of school. Nearly 87 per cent of all the boys in C.C.C. camps are under twenty-one years of age. Thirty per cent are seventeen years of age; a third of them are almost seventeen years of age.²

The educational objectives of the C.C.C. organizations are not altogether unlike those of progressive elementary and secondary schools. They have been enumerated as: (1) The removal of illiteracy, (2) The correction of common school deficiencies, (3) Training on work projects, (4) Vocational instruction, (5) Cultural and general education, (6) Avocational and leisure-time training, (7) Character and citizenship development, (8) Assisting enrollees to find employment.³

More progressive techniques and methods of instruction have been employed in the C.C.C. camps than in many of the existing secondary schools of the country. The principle of "learning to do by doing" is effectively applied. Camp classes are conducted on a discussion basis with lecturing held at a minimum. The relationship of the instructor and enrollee is one of man-to-man or adviser-to-friend. Each boy feels free to raise a special problem for consideration at any time. Each class, as nearly as possible, is centered around some practical project. Regular class work is enriched by making use of films, slides, exhibits, charts, graphs, and outside lectures.

¹ Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee, op. cit.*, p. 117.

² Frederick J. Kelly, "An Adequate Educational Program for Youth," *School Life*, XXV (April, 1940), 196.

³ Howard W. Oxley, "Growth and Accomplishments of C.C.C. Education," *Phi Della Kappan*, XIX (May, 1937), 314.

That the C.C.C. experiment has had a tremendous influence upon secondary schools and the teaching personnel cannot be denied. In the first place, the enrollment and composition of secondary schools have been affected. Many potential high-school pupils are in C.C.C. camps; particularly those who were not attracted by existing high-school offerings. Secondly, the results of the C.C.C. experimentation have been observed and evaluated by high-school teachers and administrators. If for no other reason, the C.C.C. program has been worth while in showing the present needs of youth, the inadequacy of the country's present educational system in meeting those needs, and the means by which these needs can be met. In the third place, teachers have been directly affected. The demand for teachers in the camps absorbed many unemployed teachers. Moreover, many teachers of the public schools were attracted by the opportunities afforded in the camps and transferred to them.

Not every teacher of a public high school is qualified for teaching in the camps. Therefore, teaching teachers to teach is an important phase of the training and work program of the Civilian Conservation Corps. That special attention has been paid to the selection and training of teachers is revealed in the C.C.C. Handbook for Educational Advisers:

Teachers should be selected from among the men, the officers, the camp technical staffs, voluntary teachers from local educational institutions, and unemployed teachers where available under the emergency relief program for education. In some instances men can take advantage of educational programs of the vicinity. Only persons interested in the men and their problems should be used as teachers.

The Director of the C.C.C. Camp Education made the following statement concerning the personnel of the teaching staff:

In January, 1939, 26,006 instructors were offering leisure-time instruction in the 1,500 camps. Fourteen hundred and sixty-one of these instructors were camp educational advisers; 1,296, assistant leaders for education; 3,140, army officers; 10,380, technical service

personnel; 5,355, enrollers; 1,966, emergency education program and NYA teachers; 2,408, regular teachers and "others."¹

The future of the C.C.C. program cannot be fully determined. That it has fulfilled the original objectives as an emergency measure cannot be denied. Many people believe that its educational achievements, even under hasty preparation and planning, are great and that the program should be permanently continued and developed. Some would suggest that many of the educational functions of the corps should be under the direct administration of state and local school authorities.

President Roosevelt's announcement of a plan for a training program of vast proportions to meet the needs of national defense under the conditions of present-day highly mechanized warfare suggests other potentialities of the C.C.C. organization.

Suggested at once was an expansion of the activities of the CCC and the NYA to prepare perhaps a million young men, not for military service in the traditional sense of the term, but for the highly skilled duties involved in the construction, operation and repair of aircraft, tanks and other implements of modern war.²

If such become the educational objectives of C.C.C. camps and existing secondary schools, more technicians and technologists will be required on the teaching staffs of school systems. Present-day teachers will find it necessary to adjust teaching programs to the new national demands on educational institutions and agencies.

National Youth Administration

The National Youth Administration entered its seventh year of operation June 26, 1941. At first it was organized as an agency within the Works Progress Administration, from which it was separated in 1938. In the same year it was made a part

¹ Howard W. Oxley, "Twenty-Six Thousand Teachers Go to School," *School Life*, XXIV (June, 1939), 275.

² "The New Educational Problems of National Defense," *School and Society*, LI (June 8, 1940), 725.

of the Federal Security Agency together with such agencies as the United States Office of Education and the Civilian Conservation Corps. Aubrey Williams, Administrator of N.Y.A., regards this change as "a singularly significant step as it has provided the beginnings of even more active and profitably co-operative efforts than heretofore among major Federal agencies which have youth as their principal concern."¹

The National Youth Administration was organized as an emergency measure with the chief purpose of assisting young persons not employed and unable to continue their education because of insufficient financial support. It provides assistance for a large group similar to that for which the C.C.C. was established, but assists also others whose principal immediate purpose is to attend schools and colleges.

Numerous studies reveal that the funds expended for N.Y.A. student aid have gone to those who definitely needed such assistance. For example, in December, 1937, out of approximately 223,000 N.Y.A.-aided junior and senior high-school pupils, "almost three-fourths were from families having an annual income of \$999 a year or less, and almost 40 per cent were from families having an annual income of \$499 or less. More than half were from families of six or more members."²

A tabulation of N.Y.A. student-aid application forms indicates that approximately 48 per cent of N.Y.A. students are from families with an income of less than \$600 a year, and that 71 per cent are from families below the \$900 level. Over 53 per cent of N.Y.A.-aided college students are from families with incomes below \$1,250 a year.³

¹ Aubrey Williams, "National Youth Administration," *School Life*, XXV (April, 1940), 200.

² Betty and Ernest K. Lindley, *A New Deal for Youth*, p. 186. New York: Viking Press, 1938.

³ Educational Policies Commission. *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*, p. 140. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940.

After studying carefully the problems of N.Y.A. students, the Advisory Committee on Education concluded:

There are presumably at least a quarter of a million young men and women receiving aid to whom on the average less than \$5 a month makes all the difference between going to school and not going to school. Yet this quarter of a million constitutes only three-fourths of all applicants for school aid, and there are probably many more youths whose circumstances would warrant aid although their need is not so great.¹

The monthly wage of N.Y.A. students varies between a definite minimum and maximum. The minimum for secondary-school pupils is \$3 a month, and the maximum, \$6; for college students, the limits are \$10 and \$20; and for graduate students, \$20 and \$30.²

The scope of the program of the National Youth Administration is indicated by the number of young persons aided and the amount of expenditures. In discussing the expanse of the program, Aubrey Williams states:

As compared with approximately 620,000 young people in the year, 1938-39, it is expected that nearly 775,000 NYA workers will be employed during the peak month this year (1940). Over 500,000 of these will be students and 275,000 will be out-of-school youth.³

The student-aid program during the school year 1938-39 was extended in 27,549 institutions — 25,898 schools of less than college grade and 1,651 colleges and universities. In March, 1939, N.Y.A. assisted 378,692 youth who were continuing their education. The average monthly earnings were: \$4.15 for high-school pupils; \$11.74 for undergraduate college students; and \$18.41 for graduate students.

During the same month the work projects which gave employment to youth not in school provided work and some education

¹ Palmer O. Johnson and Oswald L. Harvey, *The National Youth Administration*, p. 43. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 13. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 200.

for 235,475 youth, approximately 96 per cent of whom had been certified as in need of relief. Somewhat more than five hundred resident centers, with a total enrollment of 26,243, were in operation in forty-four states.

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940 a total of \$95,239,092 was made available for distribution to individuals through the N.Y.A.: \$28,084,092 for student aid and \$67,155,000 for out-of-school work projects. The appropriation for the N.Y.A. for the year beginning July 1, 1940 and ending June 30, 1941 was \$134,500,000.

Opinions vary as to whether or not the N.Y.A. has been successful enough to warrant its continuation. Perhaps all will agree that its chief and original purpose of assisting needy young persons to enable them to continue their education has been successfully accomplished. There is less agreement as to whether or not the work performed by N.Y.A. students has been of the caliber which would justify its continuation.

The National Advisory Committee on Education has studied this problem carefully and on the basis of objective data has come to definite conclusions. The following excerpts from the findings and recommendations of the committee's report are revealing:

A substantial amount of evidence indicates that the recipients of student aid in colleges were at least equal if not somewhat superior in average scholastic achievement to the students not receiving such aid . . . information suggests that there is no significant difference in school marks between the aided and nonaided high school pupils. . . .

The work actually accomplished has varied markedly in value. In general, it appears that the work has been carefully planned and supervised in many of the colleges. . . .

The experience with the work projects has been less satisfactory in the high schools. In many cases, the supervision of the work program has been included among the duties of administrators or teachers who, for various reasons, have failed to give it the right kind or amount of attention. The immaturity of the pupils involved in the high school work projects has been a major factor leading to difficulties. . . .

The Committee believes that the existing student aid program has achieved values that should be preserved. It has provided a funda-

mental attack upon the problem of inequality of educational opportunity, and it has demonstrated that financial assistance, at least in the upper student age levels, can be granted on a work basis with very great advantages to all, including the students themselves. . . .

The recommendation is therefore made that the student aid program be continued. It should not be made permanent until after further experience, but might well be placed upon a basis of specific and continuing statutory authorization for a period ending in 1945.¹

Certainly the N.Y.A. program has a direct effect upon the teacher. (1) The teacher has many students in class who would not be enrolled except for the assistance of the N.Y.A. (2) The teacher finds it necessary to plan and supervise the work of N.Y.A. students assigned to him. (3) The teacher is in many cases relieved of much clerical and other routine work by employing N.Y.A. aid, thereby saving time which can be used for better teaching. (4) The teacher may benefit from the assistance given by N.Y.A. supervisors now provided by the state through federal funds granted for supervisory purposes.

The success of the National Youth Administration depends, in large part, on its effective administration by the teacher and others of the teaching staff.

The Children's Bureau

The Act of April 9, 1912 which established the Children's Bureau cannot be considered emergency legislation in the sense that it was created at the time of the depression because of the unemployment which resulted from the depression. Its functions and administration, however, have been recently modified so as to co-ordinate this agency with the federal emergency agencies recently established. At present it is responsible for the administration of the maternal and child-welfare provisions of the Social Security Act, approved August 14, 1935, and the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.

The legislation, nature of the activities, administration, and

¹ Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, *op. cit.*, pp. 101-03.

scope of activities of the Children's Bureau are described in detail in a recent report ¹ of the Educational Policies Commission and in two pamphlets ² of the Children's Bureau.

The investigational work of the Children's Bureau may be grouped into the three categories of (1) health, (2) social welfare, and (3) employment. The findings of the investigations are contained in published reports and bulletins and are made available to school officials, teachers, and others. Many of the publications are of particular interest to public-school teachers. For example, the health department of the Bureau contributes subject matter which is designed to stimulate interest in teaching health.

Progress reports on the activities of health agencies coordinated with the Bureau showed that for the year ending June 30, 1938, assistance was given in the teaching of health in teacher-training colleges in 29 states, assistance in the teaching of health in the schools in 47 states, and assistance in teaching prenatal and infant care to high-school classes in 28 states.³

The program and services of the Children's Bureau concern the school in various other ways. Much information of importance to school officers is available regarding medical diagnosis, treatment, and aftercare of crippled children. In localities where demonstration child-welfare services have been established under the Social Security Act, "the services of the child welfare worker are frequently available to the school authorities for assistance in the investigation of home and other conditions affecting school children adversely and for assistance to the family and school in the treatment of such conditions."⁴ Guidance clinics are in operation in a few local areas. The Children's Bureau has investigated and reported treatment programs of state training

¹ *Federal Activities in Education*, *op. cit.*, pp. 55-62.

² *The Children's Bureau: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow*. U.S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1937. Pp. 57.

The Children's Bureau Today. U.S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1939. Pp. 8 (multilith).

³ *Federal Activities in Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 59.

schools for juvenile delinquents. These reports make reference to the importance of play and recreation in the life of the child in preventing delinquency.

THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

History of development

Federal interest in education was given considerable impetus about 1840 when the census gathered its first data on illiteracy in the United States. It was through the efforts of Henry Barnard that the Secretary of State's office permitted the incorporation of certain questions in the census inquiry which were designed to show the condition of illiteracy in this country. After the results of the inquiry were tabulated, Barnard prepared, in 1841, an address on "The Magnitude of the Educational Interests of the United States and the Necessity of Great and Immediate Improvement in State and City Systems of Public Instruction." From that time on, Barnard persistently urged the organization of a department of education in the Federal Government to improve the deplorable conditions revealed in his investigations.

Finally, in 1867, the United States Office of Education was created by Congress, with Henry Barnard as the first commissioner. The functions to be performed by the new office were defined as follows: to collect statistics and facts showing the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.¹

In the early years this federal educational agency was not held in high esteem by some schoolmen and congressmen. After a

¹ Burke A. Hinsdale (ed.), *The Works of James A. Garfield*, Vol. I, p. 127. Boston: James R. Osgood and Co., 1882.

little more than one year from the time of its creation it ceased to exist as a "Department of Education" and became an "Office of Education" in the Department of the Interior. In 1870, the agency was named the "Bureau of Education," by which name it was known until 1929, when the title of "Office of Education" was restored.

Although the agency is still known as the "Office of Education," it has undergone other recent changes. On July 1, 1939, the office was transferred from the Department of the Interior to the newly created Security Agency. The reasons for the transfer are contained in the President's Message to Congress, April 25, 1939:

Because of the relationship of the educational opportunities of the country to the security of its individual citizens, the Office of Education with all of its functions, including, of course, its administration of Federal-State programs of vocational education, is transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Federal Security Agency. This transfer does not increase or extend the activities of the Federal Government in respect to education, but does move the existing activities into a grouping where the work may be carried on more efficiently and expeditiously and where coordination and the elimination of overlapping may be better accomplished. The Office of Education has no relationship to the other functions of the Department of the Interior.

Only during the past two years has the Office of Education been suitably housed for efficiently serving the purpose for which it was established. According to a statement of the present commissioner:

The offices in the new Interior Building have most creditably served the need. The library of some 250,000 volumes — one of the largest of its kind in the world — has during these 2 years been adequately housed and is serving the largest clientele it has ever served.

Other facilities that the Office has available in the new Interior Building include the art gallery, conference rooms, museum, and auditorium. Their availability has added greatly to efficiency not only for

the staff but for conferences and others coming to the Office on important educational missions.¹

Research of the Office

The original purpose of the Office of Education was to "collect and disseminate information on education." Although numerous additional responsibilities have been placed on the Office, research continues to be a major function. Research is such an important aspect of the Federal Government's participation in education that the Advisory Committee on Education had a special staff study made and reported in a separate volume *Research in the United States Office of Education*.² This report describes in detail the developments of the Office, its research and other functions under the following chapter headings: (1) Establishment and Growth of the Office, (2) Studies and Surveys by the Office, (3) Information Service and Leadership, (4) Quality of Personnel, (5) Appropriations for the Work of the Office, and (6) Concluding Statement.

In the five years from 1932 through 1936, the Office reported more than 350 investigations made by individual members of its staff or in co-operation with states, universities, local school systems, and other agencies. These investigations which deal with practically all phases of the educational program, include questionnaire and field studies of legal and historical problems; and experimental, analytical, and statistical projects.³

The Biennial Surveys of Education, published by the Office since 1918, constitute the only available source of school statistics on a nation-wide scale. They include the most significant research activity of the Office and present educational summaries, trends, and statistics.

¹ John W. Studebaker, "The U.S. Office of Education," *School Life*, XXV (May, 1940), 227.

² Charles H. Judd, *Research in the United States Office of Education*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 19. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. viii + 133.

³ "The Office of Education, Its Purpose — To Promote the Cause of Education," *School Life*, XXIII (February, 1938), 182.

Surveys

A comparatively recent function of the Office of Education is that of conducting surveys. At the request of state, county, institutional, or local school authorities, the Office has made more than 130 field surveys in forty-one states and the District of Columbia. After analyzing and evaluating present practices, significant recommendations have been made. The extent to which these recommendations have been effective is indicated by the fact that of 1,010 recommendations in surveys of higher education, "more than 70 per cent have been carried out, in full or in part, by the states or institutions concerned."¹

The national surveys carried on by the United States Office of Education are familiar to all informed educators: (1) Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, 1927-30; (2) Negro Colleges and Universities, 1927-28; (3) Secondary Education, 1929-32; (4) Education of Teachers, 1930-33; and (5) School Finance, 1931-32. Had it not been for the effects of the depression, national surveys on rural education, elementary education, and education of exceptional children would have been conducted on a national scale by the Office.

Informational service

Among the staff of the Office are numerous specialists in the fields of adult education, C.C.C. education, elementary education, exceptional-child education, libraries, nursery-kindergarten-primary education, rural-school problems, school administration, school finance, school legislation, school supervision, secondary education, teacher education, and others. These specialists supply information regarding their respective fields by correspondence and through the publication of numerous bulletins, pamphlets, leaflets, circulars, and *School Life*. "During the fiscal year 1938 a total of 83 publications were issued, 58 of them bulletins (usually 32 pages or more). Approximately

¹ "The Office of Education, Its Purpose — To Promote the Cause of Education," *ibid.*, p. 185.

782,000 documents of the Office were distributed during the same year."¹

School Life

The journal, *School Life*, is referred to as the "Official Organ of the United States Office of Education." The subscription cost is \$1 a year for ten issues. It diffuses educational facts and statistics expeditiously to school administrators, libraries, educational institutions, and organizations. Paid and free subscriptions of *School Life* total about 13,000 and 2,000, respectively. It is a journal that should be accessible to every teacher in the United States.

In 1933 the scope of activity of the Office of Education was greatly increased by the transfer to its jurisdiction of the federal agency which from 1917 to 1933 had been an independent board, namely, the Federal Board for Vocational Education. This transfer made by the President through an executive order showed clearly the President's judgment that vocational education and general education should be co-ordinated in order to secure the effective conduct of both. The transfer brought to the Office of Education administrative functions and responsibility for the distribution of large federal funds to state school systems. These newly acquired duties were very different in character from the research functions for which the Office was originally created. Within the Office of Education the Vocational Division exists as a somewhat aloof section, carrying on its activities very much as it did when it was independent.

The defense program has greatly expanded the vocational division. During the summer of 1940 the Congress appropriated \$15,000,000 to the Office of Education to keep open and in operation the technical schools of the country which ordinarily close during the summer. In these summer technical schools training was given to men drawn from relief rolls, volunteers who desired to take what were called "refresher courses," and a limited num-

¹ *Federal Activities in Education, op. cit.*, p. 117.

ber of youth drawn from the rolls of the United States Unemployment Service. With the opening of schools in the autumn of the same year the Congress made available to the Office of Education \$60,000,000 to be used in the training of mechanics to be employed in the nation's defense program.

The steps described have done much to re-enforce the trend in American education in the direction of emphasizing vocational education. There can be no doubt that the school system of the future, whether or not it absorbs the C.C.C. program and the N.Y.A., will be concerned as never before with technical education. The teacher of academic subjects as well as the teacher of trade courses will be affected in his work by the national demands which the schools are requested to meet.

FUTURE FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION

This chapter has shown that the Federal Government has already assumed an important role in the educational system of the United States. Indications are that, in coming years, the Federal Government will participate in education to a still greater degree.

Numerous suggestions and recommendations have been made as to the means by which more effective federal co-operation and assistance in the great enterprise of education may be attained. The Advisory Committee on Education recommends the establishment of a Department of Education with a secretary in the President's Cabinet. The Educational Policies Commission and others advocate a national board or commission for education in which the executive would be chosen without reference to party politics. Another recent proposal seeks to bring about a greater co-ordination among the many agencies dealing with education in the national government by organizing a division in a Department of Public Welfare.

In any event the teacher can be certain that federal participation in education will increase. Consequently, the relationship of the teacher and the Federal Government will become more

apparent and significant. In order to utilize the benefits of federal participation in education the teacher should keep informed of the services and aids of the Federal Government which are now and will continue to be available.

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Surveys the educational program for Negroes in the United States and suggests federal policies which might secure a greater measure of educational opportunities for Negro children.

CHAPTER X

THE TEACHER AND THE STATE

IN THE preceding chapter it was indicated that the Federal Government has a part in public education which has at least an indirect effect upon the teacher. The participation of the Federal Government in education, however, is small as compared with that of the state. Moreover, the federal participation has been more for the purpose of "aiding" or "encouraging" education and was never intended to regulate the administration of the public schools. The state, on the other hand, is either the agency or designates the agency which regulates the administration, supervision, and teaching in the public schools. Therefore, the teacher is much more aware of the control of the state over public education than he is likely to be of the influence of the Federal Government.

SCOPE OF STATE AUTHORITY OVER EDUCATION

Legislative authority and limitations

State legislatures have very broad powers of control over the schools within their territories. The only limitations of these powers are those that reside in the Constitution of the United States and the constitution of the particular state over which the legislature exercises control. The constitutions of the various states were determined by the acts of Congress admitting the states into the Union. The constitutions of the early states contained only very general references to education while the con-

stitutions of the later states have been much more complete and explicit in respect to education. However, since in most state constitutions provisions pertaining to education are mandatory rather than prohibitory, the state legislature is almost unlimited in its authority to enact school laws. In the absence of constitutional prohibitions, the ends to be attained in education and the means by which those ends shall be attained are entirely subject to legislative determination. "The legislature may determine the types of schools to be established throughout the state, the means of their support, the organs of their administration, the contents of their curricula, and the qualifications of their teachers."¹

How, then, the teacher may ask, do the local boards of education gain the administrative authority which they exercise over the public schools? As a matter of fact, the local boards possess no more authority in the administration of the public schools than that delegated to them by legislative enactment. The state may set up such administrative mechanisms as it desires. It may, through its legislature, authorize or even require such subdivisions of the state as counties, townships, towns, cities, or the state itself to perform certain duties with respect to the maintenance and administration of the schools.

Judicial interpretation of state authority

From time to time, those who have been delegated or entrusted to perform certain duties in regard to education within a subdivision of the state have overstepped the bounds of their authority by assuming that education is wholly under local control and consequently is to be administered in accordance with local opinion and desire. But the courts hold otherwise. The state has complete authority to determine state educational policy and to extend that policy throughout all or certain specified subdivisions within its boundaries.

¹ Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools*, pp. 5-6. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.

Considerable litigation has developed where local self-government was assumed to be responsible for educational policy. Numerous cases involving this issue have gone to the courts of the states. Courts have been in complete agreement that, where a state policy exists, any local policy that does not conform to that of the state is illegal. The language of the courts leaves no doubt but that "education is the function of the state." A typical case¹ to which reference is frequently made was passed on by the Supreme Court of Indiana. The litigation underlying this case concerned the constitutionality of a statute requiring township trustees to distribute textbooks selected by the state board of education. The trustees assailed the statute on the ground that it violated the right of local self-government. By way of showing that local self-government can exercise no authority over a state function such as education, the court said:

Essentially and intrinsically the schools in which are educated and trained the children who are to become the rulers of the commonwealth are matters of State, and not of local jurisdiction. In such matters, the State is the unit, and the Legislature the source of power. The authority over schools and school affairs is not necessarily a distributive one to be exercised by local instrumentalities; but on the contrary, it is a central power residing in the Legislature of the State. It is for the law-making power to determine whether the authority shall be exercised by a State board of education, or distributed to county, township, or city organizations throughout the State. . . .

As the power over schools is a legislative one, it is not exhausted by its exercise. The Legislature having tried one plan is not precluded from trying another. It has a complete choice of methods, and may change its plans as often as it deems necessary or expedient. . . . It is clear, therefore, that even if it were true, that the Legislature had uniformly intrusted the management of school affairs to local organizations, it would not authorize the conclusion that it might not change the system.

This statement of the court is so clearly and forcefully stated and so frequently referred to both in Indiana and in other states

¹ State v. Haworth, 122 Ind. 462, 23 N.E. 946, 7 L.R.A. 240.

in deciding subsequent cases that one can have no doubt as to the state's dominance in educational policy.

Legal status of the teacher

"Since education is a function of the state, school officers are state officers." The courts have repeatedly rendered this decision. This fact raises the issue, then, whether or not school teachers are likewise state officers.

In general, the weight of authority suggests that to be a state officer or a public officer one must be charged by law with duties involving an exercise of some part of the sovereign power of the state. Persons, such as school-board members, elected to school positions by popular vote are generally considered to be public officers. The existence of a teacher's contractual relationship is the most conclusive evidence that the teacher is not a public officer.

According to Cammack, who has studied the court decisions pertaining to the question, "the weight of authority holds that the position of teacher is not an office, and therefore teachers are not public officers."¹ In commenting further on the judicial interpretations, Cammack states: "Even though such a relationship exists, it seems that the very nature of the position of teacher in a state system of schools would tend to constitute the position that of an officer. What official performs a more important state function than the training of future citizens?"

Whether or not a teacher is regarded as a public officer may appear to be a matter of little importance, but such is not the case. If the teacher should find it desirable to bring action against a board of education because of removal from his position, the possibilities of such action would depend upon the official status of the teacher. A case in point is that of a New Mexico teacher who had been removed from her position after a hearing before the board of education because of friction. The teacher

¹ James W. Cammack, "Are Public-School Teachers and Administrators Public Officers?" *American School Board Journal*, LXXXII (April, 1931), 61.

sought reinstatement through a mandamus action on the ground that her position implied the status of an office. The court in refusing the action said: "It is only where the teacher, by positive provision of law, has a fixed tenure of office, or can be removed only in a certain prescribed manner; and where, consequently, it is the plain ministerial duty of a school board to retain him, that mandamus can be maintained."¹

It is therefore clear that without the status of a public officer a teacher who has been discharged from his position cannot secure his reinstatement through the courts by mandamus action. He can sue only for the recovery of salary or for damages because of breach of contract. The exception to the generalization is where the teacher's legal relation to the board of education rests not on contract but on provisions in the law, such as was specified by the New Mexico Court in the decision cited in the foregoing paragraph.

Likewise it is impossible for a dismissed teacher to secure reinstatement by *quo warranto* writ unless he can show that his position is regarded as a public office. *Quo warranto* is considered an inappropriate procedure² in most states. However, in Nebraska, for example, the writ would be appropriate,³ since a statute extends the remedy to any office, public or private.

Constitutional provisions relating to teachers

Aside from the general Bill of Rights, contained in all state constitutions, protecting the rights of contracting parties, and freedom of religious belief, there is a paucity of provisions which directly affect the legal status of the teacher.

All state constitutions were analyzed by Anderson in an attempt to find provisions directly affecting the teacher. He discovered the following provisions:

¹ State *ex rel.* Sittler v. Board of Education of the Town of Gallup, 135 Pac. 96.

² Commonwealth v. Frank, 4 Pa. Co. Ct. 618.

³ Eason v. Majors *et al.*, 111 Neb. 288, 196 N.W. 133, 30 A.L.R. 1419.

The constitutions of Mississippi, Illinois, and South Dakota state that no teacher shall act as agent for any company supplying texts or goods to schools. A West Virginia provision is that all officers may be removed for "incompetency, neglect of duty, or gross immorality." ... Aliens may not teach in Nevada, while the Tennessee constitution states: No person who denies the being of God, or a future state of rewards and punishments shall hold any office in the civil department of the state.¹

Specific constitutional provisions concerning the status of the teacher are rare and irrelevant. Many of the other constitutional provisions dealing with education, however, have an indirect but decisive bearing upon the status of the teacher. Constitutional provisions dealing with the organization, support, and control of schools should be the concern of the teacher as well as of all others associated with the school.

STATUTORY PROVISIONS CONCERNING THE TEACHER

Since most of the state constitutions contain no provisions which deal directly with the teacher it may be concluded that the legislatures of the respective states are empowered to determine the teacher's rights and duties. As a matter of fact state legislatures have enacted a great deal of legislation which determines in considerable degree the status of the teacher.

With the wide scope of legislative authority it is to be expected that no two states will have the same laws affecting teachers. Every teacher should consider it an essential part of his professional responsibility to study carefully the educational laws of the state in which he is teaching. Such laws are usually codified and made available to teachers by state agencies.

A teacher, however, should not be content to know only the educational laws of the state in which he is teaching. A general knowledge of the laws in other states will enable him to make a

¹ Earl W. Anderson, *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*, p. 113. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

comparison of legislation in his own state with that of other states, thereby enabling him to exert influence for the passage, amendment, or repeal of legislation so as to effect the professionalization of the teacher and the improvement of the educational system.

Certification of the teacher

In early times the power to certificate teachers was vested in local authorities. State legislatures in general no longer leave the certification of teachers to local authorities. The state of Massachusetts is the only state which still adheres to this ancient practice. In the other states legislatures have centralized the function of certifying teachers. They have passed laws specifying the number and kinds of certificates, the qualifications demanded for certificates, and term and range of validity of certificates. They have commonly left to some designated state authority, either the state superintendent of public instruction or the state board of education, the duty of making detailed regulations for carrying out the state law. "Since 1915, thirty-three of the forty-eight states have made statutory provisions which specify the number, kind, term, and other qualifications required,"¹ for the certification of teachers. The present tendency is to follow this type of legislation.

State legislatures are constantly making revisions in the provisions for certification of teachers. After reviewing certification laws as passed by the states, particularly of the biennium 1937 and 1938, Keesecker declares the trend of legislation in this field to be as follows:

During the biennium here reviewed an unusual number of State legislatures modified the provisions governing training and certification of teachers. Among the legislative tendencies manifested in this field are: (1) Further centralization of certification of teachers in State school authorities rather than local; (2) increase in professional quali-

¹ Amalia E. Schaetzel, "Trends in Legislation Concerning Teachers in the United States from 1915 to 1935," p. 3. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1936.

fications of both school superintendents and teachers; and (3) the authorization of the issuance of certificates in special fields.¹

Despite the present heterogeneous character of legislation dealing with teacher certification in the United States, there is some promise of more stable conditions for the future.

There are a few central trends, appearing mostly within the past fifty years, which promise eventually to bring order out of chaos. Among these are the following:

1. The centralization of the licensing function in the state department of education.
2. The substitution of approved training for teachers' examinations.
3. The differentiation of certificates according to the nature of the student's preparation, and the abandonment of blanket licenses.
4. The gradual abolition of life certificates.
5. The raising of training levels for all types of teaching certificates...
6. The requirement of a certain number of specialized courses in education in the candidate's program of studies.²

The teacher's contract

All the states have enacted legislation which delegates to local administrative agencies the authority to make employment contracts with teachers.

In general, the provisions required in the contract forms seemingly aim to clarify the situation under which the teacher works, by stating specifically certain of the conditions, and to make sure that certain rights of the teacher are preserved through stipulations in the contract.³

When Anderson made his study in 1927, there were 23 states which designated specific items that must appear in the teacher's contract form. By 1935, Schaetzel reports 26 such states.

¹ W. W. Keesecker, *A Review of Educational Legislation 1937 and 1938*, pp. 28-29. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 16, 1939.

² Willard S. Elsbee, *The American Teacher; Evolution of a Profession in Democracy*, p. 337. New York: American Book Co., 1939.

³ Anderson, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

Stipulations regarding "wages to be paid per month" appear in the statutes of 17 states, and the "length of term in weeks or months" is in the statutes of 10 states.¹

The teacher's contractual duties

There are other items which are frequently mentioned in contracts, such as, "The teacher shall obey the rules and regulations of the Board of Education as set forth in the Board's handbook." Sometimes the statement is: "The teacher shall perform the duties required by the laws of the state . . ." The requirements are usually stated in general terms and the more detailed directions are left to the local school administrator or to the discretion of the teacher.

These contractual duties are, of course, to be recognized as in keeping with state laws. All the duties prescribed for teachers in the state law must be thought of as covered implicitly if not explicitly in a teacher's contract.

Schaetzel classifies the statutory duties of the teacher under the headings of "administrative," "personnel," and "instructional."

Among the most frequently specified "administrative" duties of teachers are: (1) make reports, stipulated in the statutes of 40 states; (2) keep a daily register, in the statutes of 40 states; (3) report truants, in 26 states; (4) make monthly reports, in 19 states; (5) examine child's hearing and seeing, in 15 states; and (6) follow course of study, in 13 states. Other administrative duties found less frequently in the statutes deal with notification to county superintendent of the opening of school, enforcement of the rules and regulations of the board, use of authorized texts, and responsibility for accounts of school property.

With respect to the duties governing teaching "personnel," 35 states require by law, attendance at teacher institutes; 25 states require fulfillment of contract unless released; 17 require an oath of allegiance; 16 forbid teachers from acting as agents

¹ Schaetzel, *op. cit.*, p. 64.

for supply companies; 13 require the filing of certificate with the proper official; 12 require health certificate; and 3 forbid the wearing of a religious garb.

The most frequently specified "instructional" duties of teachers as provided by state law are as follows: (1) teach history and constitution of the state, United States, or both, 18 states; (2) teach physiology and hygiene, including evils of alcoholism and narcotics, 13 states; (3) teach in English, 11 states; (4) teach and practice fire prevention, 10 states; (5) teach citizenship, 7 states; and (6) read the Bible, 7 states.¹

Curriculum prescriptions

From the earliest times colonial legislative bodies and after them the state legislatures have imposed on parents and communities the obligation to educate children in certain fundamentals. To the determination of the curriculum by representatives of the people there can be no objection in a democratic society. Trouble begins when legislatures which are endowed with the power of dictating the curriculum misuse their power. It was pointed out earlier that pressure groups often induce legislatures to act unwisely. When this happens there is a vital conflict between the duty and authority of the teacher and the requirements of state law. There is perhaps no point at which the contractual duty of the teacher requires more careful consideration than with respect to instructional materials.

Such legislation has had its most serious effect upon the elementary school, where the curriculum content has been greatly enlarged beyond the common branches of instruction through enactments made in response to the demands of pressure groups.

In one of the most recent and exhaustive studies² pertaining to the prescribed content of the elementary-school curriculum, it

¹ Schaetzel, *ibid.*, pp. 68-70.

² F. C. Fenton, "The Legal Basis for the Elementary School Curriculum." Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1932. Pp. iii + 82.

TABLE 29. TOTAL NUMBER OF STATUTORY PRESCRIPTIONS TO THE
ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Statutory Prescriptions	Number
Teaching of nationalism.....	365
Teaching of fundamental subjects.....	204
Teaching of health and prohibition.....	191
Observance of special days.....	150
Teaching of practical and cultural subjects.....	73
Teaching of religious and ethical subjects.....	53
Teaching of conservation of life and property.....	44
Teaching of humaneness to animals.....	33
Teaching of miscellaneous subjects.....	16

was found that there were in force in 1931 nearly 1,200 mandatory provisions of law relating to the elementary curriculum. That the number of such provisions is steadily increasing is evidenced by the fact that in 1903 there were 564; in 1913, 720; in 1923, 926; and in 1931, 1,182.¹ The nature and frequency of the prescriptions are indicated in Table 29, adapted from Fenton's study.

Teachers would undoubtedly recognize the value of most of these items as educational objectives without stimulation or compulsion by legislative enactment. Moreover, it is doubtful and unlikely that the average state legislature is as competent to deal with the determination in detail of the instructional materials which should be used in different grades or the amount of time which should be devoted to particular subjects as are school administrators and teachers. After all, the preparation of instructional materials is a responsibility that rests with professionally trained administrators and teachers. The function of the legislature is to voice the general demands of society and then to set up competent agencies to carry out the program which meets these demands.

Tenure provisions

Legislation relating to tenure of office for teachers has been increasing rapidly in recent years. In 1924, 37 states had no legislation on tenure. At the present time there are only 19

¹ Fenton, *ibid.*, p. 74.

TABLE 30. NUMBER AND PER CENT OF TEACHERS AFFECTED BY
VARIOUS TYPES OF STATE TENURE LAWS, JULY, 1938 *

Type of Law	Number of Teachers	Per Cent
Teachers in states without tenure legislation of any type; or annual election plan.....	340,908	38.0
Teachers entitled to tenure after a probationary period or upon appointment.....	334,968	37.4
Teachers under continuing contract law.....	50,045	5.6
All others, including teachers in districts which may legally issue contracts for more than one year.....	170,282	19.0
Total.....	896,203	100.0

* Adapted from *Handbook on Teacher Tenure*, p. 177. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XIV, No. 4. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1936.

states which have no such legislation. The number of teachers affected by various types of state tenure laws is revealed in Table 30. The data indicate that many teachers are without tenure coverage and that there is a lack of uniformity in the type of tenure legislation applicable to teachers who enjoy some measure of job security.

Permanent tenure on a state-wide basis is mandatory in Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Teachers in these states are assured continuous employment during efficient service and proper behavior after a probationary period of from one to five years.

In some states teachers may hold their positions without the necessity of annual application and election. These "continuous contracts" are now provided for in 8 states.

Schaetzel reports that 10 states have laws which provide for leaves of absence without affecting the status of tenure.

Numerous statutes stipulate the causes for which teachers are subject to dismissal. Immorality constitutes just grounds for dismissal according to the statutes of 38 states. Incompetency, willful neglect of duty, inefficiency, and misconduct are specified as causes for dismissal by 33, 30, 27, and 19 states, respectively.¹

¹ Schaetzel, *op. cit.*, p. 88.

Retirement provisions

Practically all the states have teacher retirement laws of some kind. The present trend is to establish a state-wide system which states the age at which retirement must take place and the pension which the teacher is to receive. Schaetzel reported 8 states in which teacher retirement laws function on a state-wide basis.¹ According to a recent bulletin of the Research Division of the National Education Association, 33 states have state-wide provisions for teacher retirement; 29 states have joint contributory plans; and 4 states have pension systems without requirements as to the age of retirement. Of the 33 states with state-wide statutory provisions, 17 also had some separate local retirement systems in operation.²

For the biennium, 1937 and 1938, Keesecker found that in approximately 30 states teacher retirement legislation had been enacted which affected or modified in some manner provisions relating to the retirement of teachers. These enactments for the most part tended to improve or to extend teacher retirement benefits.³

The extent of teacher retirement coverage is summarized in a Research Bulletin of the National Education Association:

At present, practically one-fourth of the teachers in the country can look forward to no retirement or disability security whatsoever. Fifty percent are protected by actuarially sound retirement plans; the remaining teachers are under various non-actuarial retirement systems or pension plans.

Protection by retirement law does not necessarily insure adequate retirement allowance, however. A study made in 1935-36 showed that, of the teachers who were employed where retirement laws operated at that time, 48 percent could expect \$50 or less per month upon withdrawal from active service; 39 percent could receive between \$51

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 93.

² *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 67. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 38.

and \$100 per month; only 13 percent looked forward to a retirement income of over \$100 a month.¹

Teaching religion

Early educators put forth great efforts before they were finally successful in divorcing religion from the schools. Nevertheless, there is occasionally an attempt by legislators, who may be influenced by pressure groups, to introduce religious training into the public-school program. Most such attempts have been unsuccessful.

There are numerous vital questions that arise in the schools and that have recently been discussed under the heading academic freedom. Some of these questions can be made very concrete by calling attention to the fact that whatever the general curriculum prescribed by the state legislature or the local board of education, the classroom teacher is constantly confronted with the opportunity of expressing views on matters which are often highly controversial. Thus, in a course in history the teacher may have occasion to praise or condemn Martin Luther. For one section of the population Luther is a great reformer and a spiritual leader. For another, he is an infamous rebel. The example may be pushed further. There was a time when orthodox religion was the chief subject of instruction in American colonial schools. Today religious teaching has been barred from the secular public schools. There are many citizens of the United States who regard it as a misfortune that religion is not a part of the school program. Should a zealous teacher who believes that religion is essential in the life of every human being be at liberty to bring into his instructional program instruction in religion?

The teacher is a public servant and at the same time an intelligent person with strong opinions on many subjects. How far should the teacher allow his personal views to dominate his teaching? A general answer which has been given to this ques-

¹ *The Status of the Teaching Profession, op. cit.*, p. 67.

tion makes first of all a distinction between the teacher of young pupils and the teacher of mature students. It is frequently said that the former has no right to impose his personal views on immature learners. Even the teacher of mature students, it has been asserted, is under obligation to treat controversial subjects with caution or with impartiality. If a teacher is going to present such a topic he should try to present both sides of the controversy.

The whole question of personal freedom to think and teach as one considers he should is complicated by what was earlier called pressure legislation. It is just in the sphere where pressure groups operate that personal liberty of thought is most likely to be active. It may be well to mention some of these areas specifically. The teaching of religion is only one of them.

At present many of the statutes regarding religion pertain to the reading of the Bible. The exact extent to which the Bible may be read and interpreted by the teacher is usually prescribed by law.

In studying the trends in legislation with regard to the teaching of religion in the schools, Flanders found that there has been a considerable increase in the number of mandatory laws on Bible reading, particularly in the decade between 1913 and 1923.¹

A number of laws requiring Bible reading were passed during the period mentioned in southern states: Alabama, in 1919; Georgia, in 1921; Kentucky, in 1924; and Florida and Tennessee, in 1925. The laws usually require the reading of a fixed number of verses each day. Some of the laws permit the teacher to use his judgment in the matter. Teachers who refuse to comply with the requirements of the law are subject to fine or dismissal. In 1931, 12 states had made Bible reading compulsory and 24 states had enacted laws permitting but not requiring Bible reading.

¹ J. K. Flanders, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum*, pp. 164-65. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 195. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.

Teachers frequently object to conducting religious exercises and consequently legislative requirements are ineffective in bringing about the values anticipated. "Many teachers believe that by making religion compulsory and perfunctory, they dull rather than stimulate spiritual qualities in the child."¹

Teaching science

The same motive that prompted laws to be enacted for Bible reading was effective in the enactment of legislation restricting the teaching of evolution.

Between 1921 and 1929, thirty-seven anti-evolution bills were introduced in the legislatures of 20 states.²

The first general and explicit prohibition against the teaching of evolution was passed by the Tennessee Legislature in 1925.

It shall be unlawful for any teacher in any of the Universities, normals and all other public schools of the State which are supported in whole or in part by the public school funds of the State, to teach any theory that denies the story of the Divine Creation of man as taught in the Bible, and to teach instead that man has descended from a lower order of animals.

A fine of not less than \$100 nor more than \$500 was imposed for each offence.³

The Mississippi law of 1926 is also illustrative of anti-evolution legislation.

It shall be unlawful for any teacher . . . to teach that mankind ascended or descended from a lower order of animals and also it shall be unlawful for any teacher . . . to adopt or use in any such institution a text book that teaches the doctrine that mankind ascended or descended from the lower order of animals.

The punishment for violation was a fine of not over \$500 and dismissal.⁴

¹ Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* p. 218. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936.

² Beale, *ibid.*, p. 227.

³ Tennessee Session Laws, 1925, 50-51.

⁴ Mississippi Session Laws, 1926, 435.

In recent years there has been less anti-evolution legislation than in previous years. Apparently, the present tendency is explained by the fact that local regulations with respect to school practices are more effective than state laws. Perhaps the public has been influenced by the systematic campaigns carried on by scientists to free the schools from the dogmatic treatment of problems in science.

Sex instruction

Public opinion has manifested itself rather vigorously in regard to the teaching of sex in the public schools. In some school systems intelligent instruction in sex hygiene is strongly urged by school patrons; in other school systems the teacher who would attempt to offer instruction pertaining to sex would risk the disapproval of public opinion and even dismissal.

The wishes of the community or of certain active groups are usually imposed upon the teachers through regulations of local authorities. Some groups, however, have attempted to formulate their opinions and principles into state laws. For example, a law was passed in the state of Michigan forbidding "instruction in sex hygiene and kindred subjects . . . in the public schools" even by authorized lecturers or school nurses.¹

Teachers' pledges or oaths

Loyalty to one's government should obviously be a requisite of every teacher's qualifications. Whether such loyalty can be affected through legislation, however, is questionable. Nevertheless, many laws have been passed with such intentions. The most noteworthy of such enactments are the so-called Lusk Laws passed by the State Legislature of New York in 1921. The first of these laws which required every teacher to obtain from the Commissioner of Education a certificate of qualification, included the following specifications:

Such certificate shall state that the teacher holding the same is a

¹ Michigan Session Laws, 1923, 211.

person of good moral character and that he has shown satisfactorily that he is loyal and obedient to the government of this state and of the United States; no such certificate shall be issued to any person who, while a citizen of the United States, has advocated, either by word of mouth or in writing, a form of government other than the government of the United States, or of this state, or who advocates or has advocated, either by word of mouth or in writing, a change in the form of government of the United States or of this state by force, violence or any unlawful means.¹

Legislative compulsion to obtain the teacher's "loyalty" is frequently sought by means of teacher oaths. Legislatures have been most active in enacting laws requiring oaths or pledges at the time of or shortly following a period of national crisis. Legal requirements for teachers to take oaths had their origin at the time of the Revolutionary War and reappeared at the times of the Civil War and the first World War.

Prior to 1930, public-school teachers in ten states were required by state law to make pledges of allegiance. At the present time half of the states make it obligatory that the teacher take an oath of allegiance to the United States Constitution.² These pledges, which differ from state to state, fall into the following classification:

(1) The simplest pledge required of teachers is one "to support" the United States Constitution and the constitution of the state. Four states have this type.

(2) Pledges "to support" the Constitution may be enlarged to include promise "to discharge faithfully" the duties of a teacher. Five states have this type.

(3) In addition to the pledge "to support" the federal and state constitutions, four states and the District of Columbia require teachers "to defend" the Constitution.

(4) Nine states add to the constitutional pledge the requirement "to teach by precept and example" love, respect, and/or

¹ New York Session Laws, 1921, III, 2048.

² "Teachers' Oaths," p. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1937 (revised report — mimeographed).

undivided allegiance to (a) the national flag, (b) the state flag, (c) law and order, (d) the government, and/or (e) American institutions.

(5) Prescriptions designed to prevent the teaching of specific theories of government and economics are found in one state, where the law requires the teacher "to refrain from directly or indirectly subscribing to or teaching any theory of government, of economics, or of social relations which is inconsistent with the fundamental principles of patriotism and high ideals of Americanism."¹

Nineteen states do not prescribe penalties for failure to observe these laws, but the state or county authorities can withhold contracts from nonconformists. In five states penalties are imposed upon nonconformists.²

That state legislatures are becoming aware of the dangers of too strict application of oath laws is evidenced by protective legislation passed in Pennsylvania and Utah and designed to safeguard teachers from dismissal because of their religious or political views.

One state recently proposed a legislative measure which would direct the state department of education and the state superintendent to stress the significance of tolerance as a basic American principle, to define the meaning of intolerance, and to provide for the inclusion of instruction of tolerance in the public school system. A proposed law in another state would provide that removal or disciplinary measures against a teacher should not be based on expression of opinion on any political, social, or economic subject, or on out-of-school activities in public affairs, or on membership in or adherence to the principles of any lawfully constituted party or group.³

In some instances the existing statutory laws requiring teachers to take oaths and prohibiting teachers from expressing political opinions have been challenged in the courts. The interpretations of the courts, in general, indicate that (1) a state legislature has

¹ "Teachers' Oaths," *ibid.*, pp. 3-4.

² *The Status of the Teaching Profession, op. cit.*, p. 73.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 73.

the right to require loyalty oaths of teachers as a contractual stipulation, (2) teachers possess the same legal right to express political opinions outside the classroom that is permitted to any other citizen.¹

There is no easy solution to the complex problem of academic freedom. One point which can be made with emphasis clears up a part of the discussion. This point came out clearly in the court decision which followed the presentation to the Supreme Court of Tennessee of the first case in which a high-school teacher broke the law forbidding the teaching of evolution. The court held that the teacher had accepted his contract to teach with full knowledge that the state law laid on him a definite injunction against teaching evolution. When he taught evolution he deliberately broke his contract and laid himself open to the penalty prescribed in the law. It is a safe rule for any teacher to follow that he is bound by his contract. If he has such strong feelings about his personal views that he is not willing to abide by the law he should not enter into a contract.

Beyond this point it is not possible to solve the problem of academic freedom by any hard and fast rule. It is clear that a teacher must have respect for public opinion if he wishes to be regarded as an acceptable public servant. Anyone who flies in the face of public opinion must be prepared to take the consequences of his action. If the consequences are drastic they are sometimes hard to accept with composure. Sometimes it is well to break down public opinion at the expense of one's own welfare. Sometimes one can change public opinion if one goes about it tactfully and forcefully.

Certainly it is fair to advise teachers to deal with all controversial questions with the fullest regard for points of view which differ from their own. How far to make concessions to others or to one's self are matters of personal judgment. The problem

¹ J. Lloyd Trump, "Legal Basis for Dismissal of Teachers Because of Expression of Political Opinions," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIX (February 1939), 449-51.

of the freedom of the individual is a problem of social and personal adjustment. To be cowardly is to be false to one's self. To be obnoxious in insisting on one's views is socially suicidal.

STATE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

The state exercises its power to organize and administer the educational systems within its territory in numerous ways. As has been noted, constitutional and statutory provisions specify the agencies to which are entrusted the performance of various administrative functions. In some states, state agencies have been designated to assume much of the direct administrative responsibility for the conduct of schools; in other states, considerable administrative responsibility has been delegated to local agencies. All states provide for some state agency to aid in the administration of the educational program outlined by constitutional and statutory provisions. The direct contact of the teacher with the state administrative agency varies from state to state.

State board of education

The first state board of education, which would today be conceived as such, was established in Massachusetts in 1837 with Horace Mann as its first secretary. With the impetus given by his insight and ambition this board was successful in aiding the cause of education. Consequently, other states followed the practice of Massachusetts and established similar agencies. At the present time there are 40 states which have state boards of education.¹ The 8 states which do not have state boards of education are: Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Nebraska, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

The most common method of selecting the members of state

¹ W. W. Keesecker, "Selection, Qualifications, and Tenure of Principal State School Officials," p. 2. U.S. Office of Education Circular No. 166, August, 1936 (mimeographed).

boards of education is appointment by the governor. There are 27 states which have state boards of education, all or a majority of the members of which are appointed by the governor. Eight states have boards of education, all or a majority of the members of which are ex officio. Nineteen states have one or more ex officio members (but less than a majority) on their state boards of education. Four states have state boards of education, all or a majority of the members of which are elected by popular vote.¹

The size of the state boards of education ranges from three members in 3 states to twelve members in 2 states. The number of members most frequently found is seven, which conforms to the recommendations of state survey commissions for boards of from five to nine members.²

There is not much uniformity in the functions which state boards of education perform, although all 40 of them have some jurisdiction over elementary and secondary education. In 18 states the board has jurisdiction over teachers colleges and normal schools; in 9 states over state colleges other than teacher-training institutions.³

Duties performed by some state boards of education, which have a very direct bearing upon teachers are: (1) the enactment and enforcement of rules and regulations pertaining to the examination and certification of teachers, (2) the prescription of courses of study for use in the public schools, (3) the adoption of a uniform series of textbooks, (4) the approval of agreements with publishers of textbooks, (5) the exercise of control over the apportionment of school funds, and (6) the selection of the chief educational officer of the state, the superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education.

¹ Keesecker, *ibid.*, pp. 2-3.

² Walter D. Cocking and Charles H. Gilmore, *Organization and Administration of Public Education*, pp. 73-74. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

Chief state educational officer

All states have a chief educational officer, most frequently referred to as "state commissioner of education," "state superintendent of public schools," or "state superintendent of public instruction." The title of the state educational officer, however, is not so important from the teacher's viewpoint as are the administrative functions which he performs. The importance of his office is suggested in the comments in a staff report of the National Advisory Committee on Education:

In certain States, the chief State educational officer is largely responsible for the determination of educational policies; in many others he shares this function with the State board of education. In still other States, he is the executive officer of the State board and is responsible for carrying out its policies. In all States, he is head of the State department of education.

The functions which have been assigned to the chief State educational officer and the relationships which may be developed through this office make it the key to educational leadership in many States. The quality of educational administration in many States depends upon the chief State educational officer.¹

Legal provisions for establishing the office are different in the different states. In some instances, constitutional provisions prescribe the manner of selection, term of office, and in a few instances even the salary. Some state constitutions provide only in general terms for such an office and leave the details with respect to manner of selection, tenure, and compensation to the state legislature.

The chief state educational officer is selected by popular vote in 31 states, by the state board of education in 9 states, and by the governor in 8 states. The term of office is four years in 25 states, two years in 13 states, indefinite in 5 states, five years in 2 states, six years in one state, three years in one state, and one year in one state.² The general consensus of opinion among educators favors a state educational executive chosen by the

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 75.

² Keesecker, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

state board the members of which are themselves selected without party designation for relatively long, overlapping terms.

State department of education

The term "department of education" is used with various meanings in the different states. In general, it can be thought of as the staff which the state educational executive employs in performing educational functions. With that interpretation, it may be assumed that every state has a department of education.

The sizes of staffs in state education departments have grown steadily in recent decades. In 1890 there were only 129 persons employed in all state education departments; in 1936 there were 2,699. In 1920 there were only five departments with fewer than 11 staff members; by 1930 there was but one. The number of departments with more than 30 staff members grew from thirteen in 1920 to twenty-one in 1930 and twenty-five in 1936.¹

The functions of a state department of education have been classified as follows: (1) to provide leadership for the entire educational system of the state; (2) to assist administrative officers and teachers in the local school units in the solution of educational problems; (3) to co-ordinate educational activities throughout the state; (4) to aid in evaluating the effectiveness of the state's program of education; (5) to direct research activities necessary to the solution of educational problems as they arise; and (6) to advise the governor and the legislature with respect to educational legislation.²

A function of the state department of education strongly emphasized is that of undertaking research dealing with all aspects of the educational program. There is no aspect of school administration, school organization, development of the curriculum, methods of teaching or any of the other professional problems of the teacher that would not lend itself to scientific inquiry. "The state office is in an advantageous position to

¹ Cocking and Gilmore, *op. cit.*, p. 87.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 84-85.

conduct inquiries of this nature, since it has contact with all types of schools and may count on the co-operation of all professional workers in the inquiries." ¹

The relations of teachers to the various state agencies are becoming more numerous and more direct. Each year brings new legislation which broadens the scope of activity of state officials. "The general trend over many years has been toward the vesting of additional administrative control over schools in the hands of State school officials. This tendency is still in evidence." ²

Teachers who are under the direct supervision of local school authorities are likely to overlook the fact that local authority rests on the last analysis on state legislation. The welfare of the teacher and the school is largely dependent upon the efficacy of a state system of education. Constitutional and statutory provisions establish state agencies and confer on them administrative authority which fundamentally determines the professional status of the teacher. It is only when the teacher understands the legal and administrative aspects of the state school organization that he is able to carry on efficiently his own functions and to co-operate whenever occasion arises in the improvement of the state's educational program.

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¹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, p. 96. Washington: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

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CHAPTER XI

THE TEACHER AND THE LOCAL SCHOOL UNIT

FOR the organization and management of schools state legislatures have found it necessary to provide local agents, such as county, township, city, village, and district boards of education, school trustees, and professional executives. These agents are generally regarded as state officials. They are also officers of the local school units¹ which they have been selected to administer. Many of their duties and responsibilities are defined in laws enacted for their guidance in carrying on necessary administrative functions. The laws frequently allow these officials considerable local autonomy; at the same time minimum and maximum limits to discretionary action are set beyond which local officials cannot go.

AUTHORITY OF LOCAL UNIT OVER THE TEACHER

The wide scope of state authority over education discussed in the preceding chapter and the large responsibility of local officers considered in this chapter may be confusing to the teacher who receives his certificate to teach from state officials but must secure his election to a position from local school officers. These local officers in addition to choosing the teacher generally fix his salary

¹ The term local school unit is used to designate a specified territory of state established for the purpose of maintaining and carrying on a public school. The territory may be coterminous with a civil unit, such as a county, township, city, or town. When established without special reference to existing civil boundaries it is designated a district.

provide the building in which school is conducted, purchase equipment and supplies, select the textbooks, set the date of opening and closing of the term of school, decide whether the teacher is or is not to be re-employed, enact rules and regulations prescribing the teacher's duties and responsibilities, and the like.

The close relationship of the teacher and local officials makes it important that the teacher have a comprehensive knowledge of local school units and of his relations with the local officers responsible for the administration of the particular school unit in which he is employed. Clear understanding of his status as an employee of this unit under existing state law and local rules and regulations enables the teacher not only to co-operate intelligently with administrative officers but also to avert many possible embarrassing situations which might result from ignorance of administrative procedures and official relations.

Some states have gone much further than others in passing legislation relating to local autonomy in matters of school control. In some states, local agencies are strictly limited by constitutional and statutory provisions in all phases of educational administration; in other states, local authorities are legally permitted to exercise considerable discretion in the administration of the local school system. Consequently, great variation exists among the school units in different states regarding the nature and extent of the relations between officials of the school unit and the teacher. At times, the status of the teacher may be determined almost entirely by local officials because of the wide latitude of authority delegated to them in this respect; at other times, the status of the teacher is outlined in such detail in the statutes that the administrative control over the teacher by local officials is strictly limited.

In general, it is true that there are certain types of responsibilities to be assumed and functions to be performed by officials of small school units that are different from those of officials in the larger administrative units. Whether the status of the teacher is determined by expressed provisions in the law or by regulations

of a local board to whom such authority is delegated depends in large part upon the size and type of administrative unit that has been legally established by the state. Moreover, in the small unit, such as the single-teacher school system, the teacher deals directly with the board of education; whereas, in a large city school system, the teacher deals very largely with the superintendent or his intermediary executive officers, such as the assistant superintendent, district superintendent, or school principal.

The individual teacher who is engrossed in teaching duties may think that the school unit with which he is connected is of little or no importance to him personally. The moment he considers himself as part of a social system he will see that he is greatly concerned. In the matter of supervisory assistance, for example, the teacher in a small school system is at a serious disadvantage. A large school system is able to send into every classroom at frequent intervals an experienced supervisor who can make useful suggestions about every phase of school work. The small school system can do nothing of the kind. The small school unit is usually seriously deficient in physical equipment. Its building is small and often in poor repair. It frequently has no maps or books of reference or shop facilities of the kind that larger units can afford.

Perhaps the most important fact about small school units is that they are governed by local school officials, who by virtue of their limited contacts, have no adequate outlook as to the needs of a modern school. The larger school unit can usually command the services of experienced business or professional men who have seen schools outside their own town, or at least have knowledge of the advantages that have come to modern industry from the consolidations of producing units.

The teacher who is alive to the advantages that arise from a superior organization of school units can, without slipping out of his proper sphere as a public servant, do a great deal to foster in the community in which he teaches, an appreciation of the contributions which consolidation of schools brings to the pupils.

The pupils in the large school unit, no less than the teachers, gain much from associations with their colleagues and from the opportunities which come from the inclusion of the school in a general and well organized system.

What has been said is intended to prepare the teacher for a consideration of the broad social character of school organization. It will be very wholesome for every classroom teacher to get outside the circle in which he ordinarily moves, outside the limited associations with pupils and textbooks, and think of himself as a factor in a political and social unit. What he will find is that the historical development of schools has been a slow and often quite accidental process. The United States as a whole has no single plan of school organization. It has an enormous collection of traditional relics which are in great need of reform.

UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The terminology of administration may be confusing to the teacher, especially when there are overlapping jurisdictions. It is essential to distinguish between these jurisdictions when such exist. For example, teachers generally need to distinguish between units of territory recognized for attendance purposes and units of territory established for administration. An attendance unit comprises the geographical and population area served by a single school; it may be one of many other attendance units governed by a single board of education. An administrative unit comprises all the area under a single system of local administration; it may be coterminous with a single attendance unit or it may contain many attendance units. To illustrate, a city school system constitutes one administrative unit but may include a number of attendance units each of which is administered by a school principal whose authority emanates from the central office of the single administrative unit.

In the administration of attendance the relations of the teacher are largely with the parents and school principal of the attendance

unit. In the administration of the curriculum instructions come directly from the central office, although they may reach the teacher through the school principal. For results achieved by the teacher the final judgment is rendered by the superintendent of the administrative unit. Thus, it is apparent that the teacher should have little difficulty in understanding his relations with the attendance unit. In the case of the administrative unit the relations may be somewhat involved. A general knowledge of the types of administrative units and their respective merits may therefore be found to be of considerable practical value.

Classification

Numerous types of school administrative units exist in different states and are described in the educational literature. The following are the chief types: (1) district, (2) township, (3) county, (4) town and city, and (5) state.

The classification proposed by Chamberlain and Meece is as follows: (1) district-township-county, (2) district-supervisory union, (3) district-county, (4) township-county, (5) town-supervisory union, (6) semi-county, (7) county, and (8) evolving state.¹

No list of types of districts is likely to be precisely correct because there are few, if any, states which have the same systems of administrative organization. Variations which exist in practice are evidences of the unlimited authority possessed by state legislatures to determine the character of their respective systems of education.

Number and size

That the states have delegated much of their control over education to legally established local school units is evidenced by the fact that there are in the United States about 127,000 school ad-

¹ Leo M. Chamberlain and Leonard E. Meece, *The Local Unit for School Administration in the United States*, Part I, p. 9. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. VIII, No. 3. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, March, 1936.

ministrative units. One investigation reports over 129,000 separate administrative units for the year 1934-35.¹

Of the approximately 127,000 administrative units the great majority, 119,355, may be classed as district units, that is, units which have a single school or system of schools; 5,842, as township units; and 1,637, as county units.

The size of the districts ranges in area from 5 to 413 square miles. The township units range from 14 to 97 square miles and the county units, from 104 to 2,055 square miles.

The state having the least number of administrative units is Delaware where the entire state, excluding the city of Wilmington and 13 other urban districts, constitutes one administrative unit. Maryland has, after Delaware, the least number of administrative units; it has 24 county units and the city of Baltimore. Illinois, at the opposite end of the scale with over 12,000 school districts, has the largest number of school administrative units.

There are approximately 840,000 teaching positions in the 127,000 administrative units which are under the control of 423,000 school-board members. These statistics show that there are more than half as many school-board members as teachers. School-board members outnumber the teachers in twelve of the states. Certain districts have been reported where the school-board members outnumber the pupils. For example, one state maintains schools in approximately 50 rural districts in which the number of pupils in average daily attendance does not exceed two. The number of board members in each of these districts is three.

Table 31 shows the number of administrative units, area in square miles, average number of units per county, number of school-board members, number of teaching positions, and the average number of teaching positions per unit for three states having the district, township, and county systems, respectively.

¹ Chamberlain and Meece, *ibid.*, p. 12.

TABLE 31. COMPARISONS OF THREE STATES ORGANIZED UNDER THE DISTRICT, TOWNSHIP, AND COUNTY SYSTEMS *

Items of Comparison	Type of Organization		
	District	Township	County
	Illinois	Indiana	Maryland
Number of administrative units.....	12,070	1,292	24
Average area of unit in square miles.....	5	28	414
Average number of units per county.....	118	14	1
Total number of school-board members..	38,635	2,700	101
Total number of teaching positions.....	47,766	21,847	8,461
Average number of teaching positions per unit.....	4	17	353

* Adapted from *Critical Problems in School Administration*, pp. 40-41. *Twelfth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association*, 1934.

ADEQUACY OF ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

"Common-school" district unit

Although the common-school district as a unit of school administration is by far the most prevalent in the United States, there is little doubt among educational investigators that it is also the least efficient of the numerous types. The limitations and inadequacies of the small school district are obvious; they were pointed out by Horace Mann a century ago and have been pointed out again and again by students of education since.

Reasons for inadequacy of the district as a unit

The chief reasons for the inadequacy of the small district organization are:

(1) The district is generally too small to provide a full program of education. Few districts that employ only one teacher ever provide more than elementary-school instruction.

(2) The taxable wealth of the small district is generally insufficient to provide a properly qualified teacher, an adequate school term, and the material facilities needed in operating a first-class school.

(3) The district which employs only a single teacher must rely on some other district to provide high-school advantages for the pupils who complete the work of the elementary school. Legislation is usually required to make high-school privileges available for such pupils.

(4) Supervision of schools in small districts is generally inadequate because such districts are unable to meet the cost of supervisory service. They must depend for supervision on state and county officers who are seldom able to provide more than nominal service.

(5) The boards of trustees in small districts are usually inadequately qualified for administrative responsibility over schools. As a result they often obtain only poor results for the money they have to spend for school purposes.

(6) School progress on the part of pupils under the district system is usually slower than in larger units because of the great difficulties involved in carrying on educational work with poor financial support, insufficient facilities, and teachers without adequate training.

Although sparsity of population and geographical conditions make it difficult for large administrative units to function satisfactorily in certain states, evidence has been produced in practically every state showing that the enlargement of the administrative unit beyond the common-school district would add to the efficiency of the educational program.

An example of the benefits of greater size of district is provided by city school systems, where the greatest educational progress has been made. During the periods of early growth some cities provided school facilities through the multiplication of districts. For a time the schools of some of the rapidly growing cities were administered as independent district systems. Gradually the consolidation of school districts in cities has been accomplished until today the schools of most American cities are administered as a single system. The boundaries of the school and civil city are not always identical, since areas adjacent to a city may desire

to unite with the school city even though they do not become part of the civil city. Of the 191 cities with a population exceeding 50,000, 121 have boundaries in common with their school districts; whereas in 70 cities the boundaries of the school district are not coterminous with those of the civil city.¹

Characteristics of a satisfactory unit

Territorial identity of a school administrative unit with the area occupied by a civil unit does not necessarily result in educational efficiency. Population, financial resources, social composition of the people, and economic conditions are among the many factors to be considered in organizing a state into local school administrative units.

Six criteria were set up by White in a theoretical redistricting of Wyoming as a means of reducing the disparity between local districts in ability to support schools: (a) districts should be geographical unities; (b) districts should be large enough to provide satisfactory educational opportunities; (c) districts should be of sufficient size to insure constructive local initiative; (d) districts should be large enough to justify adequate administrative and supervisory staffs; (e) districts should have adequate financial resources; and (f) districts should have unity of organization and provide for centralization of authority.²

Dawson concludes that satisfactory school administrative units depend upon the functions to be performed.

Those functions, in terms of the administrative and supervisory services required of an administrative unit, are those of (a) business and educational administration, (b) supervision of instruction, (c) health supervision, and (d) census and attendance supervision. . . .

¹ Edward C. Bolmeier, "Legal Basis of City and School Relationships," p. 48. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1936.

² R. H. White, "A Plan for Reorganization of the Administrative Units of the Public School System Which Will Better Serve the Educational Needs of the State of Wyoming." New York: Teachers College, Columbia University (Unpublished Manuscript), 1936.

Such an organization would accommodate approximately 10,000 to 12,000 pupils. A school system of such size would be supported by a population of around 50,000.¹

A study by Briscoe revealed that general control was most adequately provided in units employing 200 or more teachers. Units of 70 to 80 teachers provided satisfactory general control by using only a comparatively small percentage of their current expense; units of 40 to 50 teachers showed a marked increase in the percentage of current expense for adequate general control. In units of 30 teachers or less the cost for these services became prohibitive.²

Township unit

The town or township as the unit of civil and school government developed in New England where the people in early days settled in compact communities because of dangers from hostile Indians. The town consisted of the village in which the people lived and the adjacent farming land which they cultivated or claimed. The size of the unit depended on the number of inhabitants forming the town and the amount of surrounding land claimed. In general, the unit was irregular in shape, often being determined by natural features, such as streams and hills.

The middle colonies of New York and Pennsylvania were influenced in part by the New England town organization and in part by the English county organization. The English example dominated the organization of schools in the southern colonies. New York tended to follow the New England plan while Pennsylvania tended to follow the southern plan. The Pennsylvania plan combining town or township and county government tended to

¹ *Reorganization of School Units: A Report of the Proceedings of a Conference Called by the Commissioner of Education*, p. 9. U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 15, 1935.

² Alonzo O. Briscoe, *The Size of the Local Unit for Administration and Supervision of Public Schools*, pp. 104-06. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 649. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

become the model for the new states organized out of the Northwest Territory. In the latter states the rectangular or congressional township six miles square as provided by the survey ordered by the Ordinance of 1785 became the local unit and the county the secondary unit of state government.

In one of these states, Indiana, the congressional township is the unit of school organization and administration; in the other states the township is subdivided into districts as school units, the township playing only a minor role in school affairs.

The township is larger than the district and yet even though larger it often has insufficient wealth to enable it to provide an adequate school system for the children residing within its borders. Furthermore, distribution of the population and the resulting community patterns frequently render the township an unsatisfactory unit for school purposes.

The improvement of roads has greatly altered marketing conditions and the social relations of the people. The boundaries of the township established by the rectangular survey are often not the boundaries of the communities in which the people earn their living, trade, worship, and seek their recreation. Unlike the early New England township which constituted a social union of the people, the middle western township is often an artificial unit lacking in social cohesion. People residing therein may be identified with community centers outside the township. They may therefore prefer to send their children to the schools in these centers. Under this condition no great loyalty on the part of either pupils or parents exists for the schools maintained within the artificial township units. These schools are declining institutions and are certain to be abandoned as community readjustments take place.

County unit

The inadequacy of the traditional school district has prompted at least twelve states to substitute the county as the basic unit of administrative control and support. The majority of states

adopting the county unit of school administration are in the South.

The reason for the selection of the county as a unit by certain states is the inability of many rural areas smaller than the county to support schools. By locating schools in community centers and then transporting the rural pupils to these centers better facilities can be provided than is possible under the district plan. The county as such is not a homogeneous school unit, but it does make possible the organization of a system of schools for a geographical area. For this reason it is regarded with considerable favor in states having many sparsely populated areas.

There are various modifications of the county plan. West Virginia is considered to be most purely representative of the county system; every school in each county of the state of West Virginia operates under the administration and supervision of a county board of education and a county superintendent even though the county may include large cities. In Maryland and Louisiana there are one and two independent city districts, respectively; otherwise they are organized strictly on the county plan. In the other states which purport to have the county plan the movement has not been completed; cities and larger villages are organized as independent school districts and are therefore exempt from county control.

A modification of a county-unit system of school organization is illustrated in the state of Utah.

Utah now has forty school districts and only twenty-nine counties. Each of the five first class and second class cities (7,500 population or more) is a separate school district by constitutional mandate. All other cities and villages are included in the county school districts. Four counties — Salt Lake, Utah, Sanpete, and Juab — have two school districts each, exclusive of first and second class cities. Summit County has three school districts. The creation of more than one school district in these five counties was permitted during the development of the county-unit system, either because of the large population in the counties or because of distinct differences between sections of the same county due to industrial or geographic conditions. Twenty-

four counties have one school district each, coterminous with the county boundary but exclusive of any first or second class city which may be within the county limits.¹

Various causes have been pointed out as explanations of the slowness of the movement toward county consolidation of school administration. One investigator classified groups active in impeding change from a smaller to the larger unit in West Virginia as follows: (a) county superintendents who object to being legislated out of jobs; (b) city superintendents of independent districts who feared the loss of their positions; (c) boards of education of local districts; (d) sentimental patrons of very small schools; (e) chambers of commerce which feared the lowering of standards for city schools; (f) newspaper reporters anxious to represent what they considered to be public opinion; and (g) intimidated teachers who did not dare to express their real opinions.²

It was pointed out by another investigator that the two greatest factors impeding the adoption of larger units are tradition and lack of evidence.³

"Lack of evidence" can no longer be accepted as a valid reason for not enlarging the school administrative unit. In practically every state, research studies have been made and published showing by factual data the advantages of a county unit over the smaller school administrative units.⁴

The advantages to be gained in changing from the district or

¹ Edward A. Bateman, *Development of the County-Unit School District in Utah*, p. 4. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 790. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.

² L. V. Cavins, "Organization and Operation of the County Unit in West Virginia," *The Application of Research Findings to Current Educational Practices*, pp. 236-42. Official Report of the American Educational Research Association, 1935. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1935.

³ Edgar L. Morphet, "Procedures for Obtaining Adequate Organization and Administration for Rural Schools," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, pp. 302-03. Washington: National Education Association, 1936.

⁴ William C. Reavis and James D. Logsdon, "Organization of Administration in Territorial Units," *Review of Educational Research*, VII (October, 1937), 400-04.

the township to the county unit are enumerated in various scientific reports. The report of the Mississippi survey staff is illustrative:

(1) The comparatively large size of the county is easily conducive to the equalization of school costs and educational opportunities over an excessive area.

(2) The large area renders consolidation of schools feasible and advantageous.

(3) The number of schools and teachers renders it practicable to employ special supervision of a professional nature.

(4) A county school board properly organized and with sufficient authority will develop a progressive and enlightened leadership far in excess of that obtained under the ordinary district system.

(5) The city school systems that have accomplished such wholesome results in the development of the educational work of the nation furnish the proper model for the proposed county organization.

(6) Both tradition and social conditions obtaining in the South render the county unit the natural and logical type of local authority.¹

The manner in which a county system functions may not be clear to one who is not teaching in a state organized on the county plan. Of course there are considerable differences among the county-unit states as well as among the counties within a single state with respect to the way in which the county unit operates, but a description ² of a single county in the state of West Virginia is illustrative.

The school system of Wayne County, West Virginia, is under the administrative authority of a five-member board of education elected at large by the electors in conformity with regulations established by state law, the state board of education, and the

¹ M. V. O'Shea (director), *Public Education in Mississippi*, pp. 25-26. Jackson, Mississippi: Department of Education, 1926.

² M. J. Robinett and J. B. Shouse, "The Working Ways of a County School System," *American School Board Journal*, XCIX (October, 1939), 25-27, 91.

state superintendent of free schools. The county board works through its appointee, the county superintendent. The county superintendent assumes responsibilities comparable to those of a city superintendent of schools. The county superintendent maintains a schedule of two annual visits to each of the 350 teachers in Wayne County. The superintendent outlines for particular schools the solutions of specific problems as their special projects for the year, and then arranges for other teachers to attend demonstrations in the various schools. Mimeographed "Guides to Teachers" and monthly bulletins are distributed to aid in improving the performance of teachers. Those who are in charge of administration and of supervision are aware of the needs, limitations, and handicaps under which schools labor but have confidence that improvement is steadily being made.

The tendency to regard the state as a unit

A study of the evolution of school organization and administration reveals that the trend has been definitely toward larger school administrative units. Although a major part of the educational literature pertaining to educational administration suggests that the county constitutes the best possible unit at present for school organization and administration there is no certainty that the demand for larger units will reach its limit even if the county should become the unit in all states. Certain prominent educators and authorities in educational administration already advocate the state as the ultimate goal in the enlargement of school units.

Various arguments may be offered to support the recommendation that the state be adopted as the administrative unit. A common argument is that the problem of equalizing educational opportunity would be solved if the state comprised a single unit of school support and control. The statement made by the educational advisory staff to the Illinois Educational Commission, although not made as a proposal for a state unit, illustrates the point:

The present disparity between the wealthiest and poorest district in the state is represented by a ratio of 250 to 1. If the local districts were as large as congressional townships the ratio would be approximately 20 to 1; if as large as counties, the ratio would become 6 to 1; if the state were made the unit the disparity would disappear.¹

Advocates of the state as the unit of school support and control hold that the county is not a satisfactory school unit and that it is no longer even a necessary civil unit. County lines were established without regard to the size of the area bounded, or to its population and wealth. Hence, the county can never be a really homogeneous school unit.

There are tendencies toward making the state the unit of school support, if not the unit of administration. The state is steadily assuming a more important role in the financing of education. The adoption of new state taxes in lieu of the unpopular general property tax locally administered partially explains the increased state participation.²

At present no state constitutes a complete single unit for both school support and school administration. North Carolina pays the major part of educational costs from state revenue but the schools are still administered on a county basis.

The evolution toward the state as a single school unit is most apparent in the state of Delaware.

With the exception of fourteen special city districts the state forms what is known as a state-board unit. This unit which involves approximately 200 schools and about 580 teachers is administered by the state superintendent with the assistance of special supervisory agents. For this purpose the state unit is divided into six supervisory districts. While there is a local board of trustees for each attendance area which acts as the representative of the state superintendent in the management of its respective school, the tendency is clearly in the direction of the complete elimination of all local units except the fourteen special city districts.³

¹ Illinois Educational Commission. *Report of the Advisory Staff Made to the Illinois Educational Commission*, p. 8. Springfield, Illinois: 1935.

² Edward C. Bolmeier, "Recent Tendencies in Taxation for Public-School Support," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXV (February, 1935), 415-22.

³ Chamberlain and Meece, *op. cit.*, p. 37.

Maryland is classified as one of the states with the county system of school administration, although all members of county boards are appointed by the governor of the state and may be removed from office on the recommendation of the state superintendent of public instruction.

The state of Nevada has been divided into five supervisory districts containing from one to five counties. For purposes of educational supervision all districts in each of the five supervisory districts are under the control of a deputy state superintendent. The county, however, still serves as an intermediate unit for fiscal purposes.¹

The tendency of many leaders in education to stress the importance of adopting a minimum program of education for the United States below which no individual unit — district, city, township, county, or state — should go presages financial aid by the state for units smaller than the state and also presages federal aid for states unable to provide adequate programs of education. The imposition of a heavy income tax by the Federal Government has deprived both states and local school units of their best sources of revenue for the support of schools. This fact compels both the Federal Government and the states to think in terms of units larger than localities for the support of schools.

BOARDS OF DIFFERENT ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Since each state has established its own type of board for each particular kind of administrative unit, the teacher not only finds it desirable to understand the character and organization of the different boards in the state of his employment but also to have some knowledge of the boards of other states.

District boards of education

The district board is more common than other types in the United States. It is therefore most likely that the teacher in his

¹ Chamberlain and Meece, *ibid.*, p. 37.

first position will come in contact with this type of board, since the majority of teachers acquire their first teaching experience in one-room rural schools. The teacher will probably make application to the members of a district board and will enter into contract with the board when employed. If he desires advice about how to manage his school he will find it necessary to consult board members, since the only supervisory officer having any responsibility for the work of the teacher is the county superintendent and this official may not be available when needed. The teacher must also look to his board for the supplies and equipment needed in the conduct of his school. In this connection, the member of the board to consult is in most districts the president, although in some districts the purchasing of supplies may be the responsibility of the secretary. When the teacher desires his pay he must secure a warrant from the treasurer.

The board members of a district school are very responsive to the demands of school patrons. In most states the members of these district boards secure their election by popular vote at school elections held in the district in accordance with the laws enacted for the purpose. This method of election makes the members especially subservient to pressure from the electorate. Since face to face contacts between board members and voters are usually frequent in small districts, popular opinion with respect to the teacher and the school has great influence with board members.

Town and city boards of education

The legal provisions for the selection of boards of education in incorporated towns and cities reveal greater variation than in the small rural districts. Some states have classified towns and cities into population groups and have attempted to adapt the methods of school control to the special needs of the groups. For example, in the large cities boards of education may be appointed rather than elected; in the towns and smaller cities legislatures have generally preferred election to appointment.

In an investigation¹ in which the laws pertaining to the 188 cities with a population over 50,000 were analyzed, it was found that in 139 of these cities the board members are elected at city, special, or general elections; whereas in the other 49 cities the board members are appointed by city officials or other agencies designated by law.

The mayor is designated by city charter or statute as the sole appointing agency in 29 cities. His appointments require no confirmation from other agencies, and the mayor is free to rely upon his sole judgment as to whom he shall appoint. In 3 other cities the mayor's appointments must be confirmed by the city council. The laws applying to 11 cities designate the city council or commission as the appointing agency. Four cities have their school-board members appointed by judges; one, by the legislature; and one, by the city manager.

Teachers would not necessarily be concerned about the method of school-board selection were it not for the fact that the methods of selection often determine the kind of persons who will seek or accept membership on boards of education. In certain cities where city officials are authorized to appoint school-board members, politics often permeate the school system and the status of the teacher may be determined by political affiliation or maneuvering. This is more likely to be true in those cities where the city official is not only authorized to appoint board members but is also an ex officio member of the board. In other cities, where the appointive method prevails, well organized forces may seek to control the personnel of the board by sponsoring candidates of the conservative type who will fight to keep down expenditures, and may attempt to prevent teachers and other employees from engaging in active participation in civic affairs.

Because of the conditions indicated students of public-school administration favor the selection of boards of education at special school elections in which the members are selected from

¹ Edward C. Bolmeier, "The Selection of City Boards of Education," *American School Board Journal*, XCVI (May, 1938), 41-43.

the district at large. It is generally believed that this method results in a more representative membership than does election by wards or appointment by city officials. Only for the large city with a population in excess of 500,000 would there be possible objections to this method of election. Perhaps all the different methods possess some advantages as well as disadvantages; a method may work well in one city and not in another. However, the state function of education will in the long run be better served by board members who are not obligated for their nomination, election, or appointment to particular individuals or groups.

In a study of the personnel of boards of education Counts¹ came to the conclusion that under the methods of selection in use discrimination resulted against certain occupational groups. His data revealed the fact that a majority of members of school boards were proprietors and persons engaged in professional, managerial, and commercial services as opposed to tradesmen and persons engaged in manual labor. His findings led him to propose compensation for services on boards of education and occupational representation. These proposals have not been received with favor, although his criticisms have been generally recognized as valid.

The solution of the problem of securing the most desirable personnel for boards of education will not be found by following the proposals of Counts but by setting up standards of personal qualities, civic attitudes, and educational ideals which should be possessed by the individuals who aspire to board membership or who are selected by the community for such services.²

¹ George S. Counts, *The Social Composition of Boards of Education*, p. 15. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 33. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1927.

² See J. C. Almack, *The School Board Member*, p. 24. New York: Macmillan Company, 1927, for characteristics of a desirable school-board member.

AUTHORITY OF SCHOOL BOARDS OVER EDUCATION

The authority which is delegated to local boards of education by the legislature is, of necessity, general and variable. The educational needs and problems of the different local school units are so extremely different that no legislature is competent to formulate all the specific legislative provisions which would apply successfully to all communities. The school laws usually specify that the school boards shall make suitable and necessary rules and regulations for the management of the schools.

City boards of education

City boards of education frequently have authority to administer education beyond that granted to boards of small districts. This is true even though, in theory, the large urban school district is legally on the same footing as the small rural district, in that each is a single administrative unit, each acts as an agent for the state in carrying out a state function, and each reports to and draws money from the same state source. Among the special powers frequently granted to city boards of education are the right to select their own textbooks and outline their own courses of study; the right to examine and certificate their own teachers; authority to levy and collect their own school revenue; and power to elect supervisory and other officers and to establish and maintain special types of schools.

In commenting on these special powers of city school boards, Cubberley makes the following statement:

It is perfectly right and proper that additional powers and larger authority should be granted to city school systems, since their problems are larger and more difficult, the number and nature of such additional powers to be determined by the kind of standards maintained by the state school system as a whole.¹

¹ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *State School Administration*, p. 179. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927.

County boards of education

The legal authority of county boards of education to exercise control over education within the county varies considerably. In some states authority is limited, as exemplified in Indiana, where the county board is merely authorized (1) to consider the general needs of the schools for the school property of which they have charge and matters relating to the purchase of school furniture, books, maps, charts, etc.; (2) to make changes of high-school textbooks under certain restrictions; and (3) to supervise the management and care of township libraries.¹

It is obvious that in such a state as Indiana the county board has very little, if any, direct control over the teacher. In other states the relationship between the board and the teacher is much more direct. Such is the case in counties in Maryland where the laws determining the functions of the county board of education specify authority to (1) appoint teachers and fix salaries; (2) suspend or dismiss teachers; (3) prescribe and distribute county courses of study; and (4) recommend teachers for retirement.²

SCHOOL BOARD AUTHORITY OVER TEACHERS

The teacher should understand and respect the authority of the board of education. As agents of the state and representatives of the people in the local unit board members are held responsible for the efficiency of the schools under their control. Since the board of education must rely on its employees for the efficiency of its schools, it is evident that the board must have authority over these employees. For this reason state legislatures have generally empowered local boards to adopt rules and regulations for the government of the schools under their control. The statutes sometimes describe in detail the board's authority to formulate rules and regulations pertaining to its employees, as

¹ School Laws of the State of Indiana (Indianapolis: 1935), Chapter 5, Section 120, pp. 55-56.

² "Summary of Important Sections of the Maryland Public School Laws," *Maryland School Bulletin*, XVI, No. 3 (1935), p. 9.

exemplified by a provision contained in the state laws of Iowa: "The board shall make rules for its own government and that of the directors, officers, teachers, and pupils . . . and require the performance of duties by said persons imposed by law and the rules."¹ At times, such authority is implied in more general terms: "Each board of school directors in this Commonwealth may adopt reasonable rules and regulations for its government and control."²

Whether the statutes express or imply authority or make no reference whatsoever to the authority of local boards to make rules and regulations governing teachers, there is little doubt as to the right of the board to prescribe the duties of the teacher since this right is inherent in the nature of the function assigned to boards of education to maintain systems of education.

Judicial interpretations of the authority of boards of education over teachers

The courts have repeatedly upheld school boards in actions relating to rules and regulations pertaining to teachers unless the rules and regulations were considered unreasonable from the standpoint of the nature of the school service for which boards are made responsible. The validity of rules and regulations passed by local boards of education is sustained by the courts on the ground that rules and regulations are essential to the discharge by the board of its delegated responsibility in performing a state function in conformity with constitutional provisions and legislative intentions.

Brumbaugh studied court decisions in an attempt to determine the extent of the legal authority granted local school boards to make rules and regulations governing teachers. His findings based upon numerous cases warrant the following conclusions:

- (1) A board of education may refuse to employ teachers who are members of labor organizations or other federations which are con-

¹ *School Laws, State of Iowa*, 1929, Chap. 213, Sec. 4224.

² *School Laws of Pennsylvania*, 1931, Art. III, Sec. 306.

sidered to be inimical to the welfare of the school. Furthermore, teachers who are already employed by the board may be required to discontinue their membership in such organizations. . . .

(2) Some courts have held that a board may reserve such a right as the dismissal of teachers for other causes than those specified in the laws. Other courts have given a strict interpretation concerning the authority of the board and have allowed the exercise of only such powers as are expressly defined in the statutes.

(3) Rules made by school boards requiring teachers to attend summer school; to teach in any school or department within a school system; to reside within the district in which the service is being rendered; to pass a physical examination, to be regular in attendance upon teaching duties, and to enforce regulations made by the board have been held reasonable and valid.

(4) A board exceeds its authority in making and enforcing a rule which provides that women teachers who marry during the term of their contract thereby terminate the contract. Furthermore, marriage is not a cause for dismissal in the absence of rules or statutes relating thereto.

(5) A rule which requires teachers to forfeit a portion of their salary or to employ substitutes at their own expense during periods of unexcused absence from service is valid. But a board may not arbitrarily withhold a portion of a teacher's salary for the creation of a pension or retirement fund unless such action is specifically authorized by statute. . . .

(6) In the absence of law or rule, courts have held that a board may dismiss teachers for teaching disloyalty; for active participation in election campaigns, in the classroom while the school is in session, particularly when such campaigns pertain to school officials; for holding pacifistic views; and for refusing to readmit a suspended pupil after he has been reinstated by the board. . . .

(7) The assignment of a teacher, who has a definite contract, to some other position than one contracted for, is equivalent to dismissal. Teachers who are on permanent tenure or an indefinite contract may be assigned to positions to which they are best adapted or in which they are most needed, compatible with the general statutes and the rules of the board. Generally statutes endow boards with broad discretion in cases of indefinite tenure.¹

¹ Aaron J. Brumbaugh, "The Authority of Boards of Education in the Administration of Pupils and Teachers as Defined by the Courts," pp. 351-53. Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1929.

ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS OF LOCAL SCHOOLS

The teacher who has had experience both in rural schools and in schools employing a number of teachers realizes that the outstanding difference is generally one of professional supervision. In the single-teacher rural school the teacher is expected to be professionally self-sufficient. If need arises for professional advice in meeting school problems, the immediate source of assistance is the local board of education. Since board members are usually individuals without professional training they are generally helpless to provide the teacher with the assistance desired. In districts which employ a number of teachers, professional administrative officers and supervisors are provided by boards of education to manage and to supervise the schools. A teacher in need of assistance in these schools consults the professional officer qualified to give the service desired. It is generally recognized that the members of the board of education have delegated professional duties to their administrative and supervisory officers. In such schools the teacher should differentiate sharply in his thinking between professional and lay services. He should recognize that the professional officers are his advisers and that he will seldom, if ever, need to deal directly with the board of education. It is therefore desirable for the teacher to understand the professional officers with whom he works and to know the functions for which they are responsible to the board.

The city superintendent of schools

With the establishment of the office of city superintendent of schools, slightly over a century ago, the status of the teacher was greatly improved. Previously, the teacher was supervised by, and held accountable to, ministers, town selectmen, and school committees without regard to their professional qualifications or competency. In present practice the board of education selects a person who is professionally qualified to supply the type of leadership that is essential to the proper functioning of the school system.

The qualifications and the status of city superintendents are superior to those of most county superintendents of schools. The professional status of the city superintendent is constantly improving; even within the decade 1923-33 there was considerable improvement according to the findings of an extensive survey.¹

With respect to academic training, it was found in 1933 that approximately 3 per cent of city school superintendents had the doctor's degree; over 56 per cent had the master's degree; 36 per cent had only the bachelor's degree; and less than 4 per cent had no degree.

The survey findings also revealed that (1) the median superintendent is a man of about forty-five years of age; (2) he has served twenty-one years in educational work; (3) he has had both teaching and administrative experience in elementary and secondary schools; and (4) he receives an annual salary of approximately \$4,000. In these respects it was found that superintendents of small town and rural school systems ranked considerably lower than the city superintendents.

The authority and duties of city superintendents of schools vary somewhat depending upon (1) the policies of individual boards and (2) the size of the school system. Survey findings reveal that in cities above the 50,000 population level the superintendent is authorized to initiate, execute, and approve instructional matters. Much of his authority in this respect is delegated to subordinates but he retains the right to approve or disapprove their actions. He also possesses the right to initiate and execute personnel matters with the board retaining the power of approval.

In middle-size cities, boards appear to allow the superintendent to have more to do with instruction and less to do with personnel than in cities over 50,000 population.

In the smallest cities, the superintendent has extensive rights to initiate, to execute, and to approve in connection with classroom procedures.²

¹ *Educational Leadership. Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1933.* Pp. 528.

² *Ibid.*, p. 103.

Obviously, the rural school superintendent has still less authority over the teaching personnel than has the city superintendent.

The rural superintendent seems to lack many powers connected with personnel matters. . . . He appears to be one with the right to inspect everything and the power to change nothing. His status appears to be a position of leadership in name only, because authority over the essentials of the superintendency is often lacking.¹

Many of the powers granted the city superintendent of schools have a very direct bearing upon the teacher, as may be inferred from Table 32.

TABLE 32. PERCENTAGE OF 1,478 CITY SUPERINTENDENTS HAVING POWER TO INITIATE, EXECUTE, OR APPROVE VARIOUS FUNCTIONS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION *

Function	Percentage of Superintendents Having Power to —		
	Initiate	Execute	Approve
Appointment of teachers.....	95.7	73.8	2.5
Transfer of teachers.....	89.5	82.6	15.0
Dismissal of teachers.....	88.2	60.8	2.2
Determination of curriculum content....	79.8	70.8	29.7
Selection of textbooks.....	81.5	74.6	24.0
Selection of instructional supplies.....	83.4	78.4	26.3
Direction and supervision of classroom instruction.....	82.8	70.5	38.5

* Adapted from data included in *Educational Leadership*, *ibid.*, Table 21, p. 136; Table 22, p. 138; and Table 23, p. 139.

The school principal

In city systems the immediate administrative officer of the teacher is the school principal. The relations of the teacher and the principal are fully treated in Chapter XII. In this discussion it is sufficient to indicate that the teacher must look to the principal for educational leadership and administrative guidance. Instructions from the superintendent and from staff officers will usually be received from these officials through the principal. The tendency at present in many city school systems is to rely more on the principal for the supervision of teachers than on staff officers.

¹ *Educational Leadership*; *ibid.*, p. 222.

Staff officers in city school systems

The number of staff officers who assist the superintendent in administering the school will depend upon the size of the school system.

Large schools may have many staff officers, such as grade supervisors, special supervisors in subject areas in which the teachers of a system may need considerable assistance, psychologists, psychiatrists, directors of research, and visiting teachers, to mention a few. These officers are employed to improve the teaching in the schools through supervision. They visit the schools and counsel with the principals and teachers regarding the organization of instructional materials, teaching methods, progress of pupils, special difficulties of teachers, needed equipment and supplies, and the like. In some school systems these supervisors and special assistants visit only on call from the local schools. The purpose here is to place the responsibility for school improvement on the principal and the teacher who know that special assistance and advice are available and can be had on request.

The county superintendent of schools

In small districts with only a single school the teacher may be considered as the local school administrator. In such districts the only professional adviser to the teacher is the county superintendent of schools. The office of county superintendency was established by law in most of the states after many experiments. In some states it evolved out of some other office which preceded it.¹

For the school year, 1927-28, there were a total of 3,361 county superintendents in the United States.² There is no reason to believe that the number is markedly different at present.

¹ N. William Newsom, *The Legal Status of the County Superintendent*, p. 4 U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1932.

² Julian E. Butterworth, *The County Superintendent in the United States*, p. 1 U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, 1932.

The various methods of selecting the county superintendent of schools are by: (1) popular vote, (2) appointment by the county board of education, (3) appointment by the county court, (4) election by representatives of the school boards of the county, and (5) election by the township trustees. Selection by popular vote is the most common method, being employed in thirty-four states.¹

Investigations reveal certain other significant facts regarding the county superintendent of schools: (1) More than two-thirds of all county superintendents are men; 91 per cent of them are married. (2) The median age is about 45. (3) Median total educational experience is about 20 years. (4) Median length of experience as county superintendent is 7 years. (5) The median period of training above the elementary school is 7.8 years; 57 per cent have no degree; 33 per cent have the bachelor's degree only; 9 per cent have the master's degree; and 1 per cent has the doctor's degree. (6) The median annual salary is \$2,312. (7) The county superintendent, except in about 60 per cent of the counties, has no professional assistants; and about half of the officers have no clerical assistance.²

The qualifications of the majority of county superintendents, as revealed by the data presented in the foregoing paragraph, are too meager to warrant the public in expecting from them competent professional leadership. Many county superintendents can give little, if any, professional assistance to teachers, particularly to teachers whose qualifications are superior to those possessed by the superintendents.

The problems of the county superintendent are in many respects more complicated than those of the city superintendent. For instance, the average county superintendent has 145 teachers under his jurisdiction, distributed among fifty-five buildings

¹ Walter D. Cocking and Charles H. Gilmore, *Organization and Administration of Public Education*, p. 108. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

² Butterworth, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-50.

spread over a large territory, often difficult to traverse. Thirty-eight of his schools are in one-teacher buildings. These facts indicate that the county superintendent must deal with many local boards of education as well as with teachers.¹

The extent to which the county superintendent possesses administrative authority over the teacher depends upon the type of unit he represents. The range in administrative authority is exemplified by situations in two states. In Minnesota, he has practically no administrative authority; he merely advises without compulsion, boards and teachers within the county, and performs clerical functions; in Tennessee, on the other hand, the county superintendent administers the school program of the county, recommends the personnel to be employed and the salaries to be paid, prepares the annual budget and makes proposals to the board for improving the school program.²

Administrative and supervisory relations in city systems

The authority over a city school system rests with a board of education whose policies are executed through the professional leadership of a superintendent of schools, who, in turn, selects a staff to assume delegated responsibilities. The source of administrative authority and the channels through which it passes until it reaches the teacher can be easily grasped by studying a diagram of administrative organization for any school system. The accompanying figure on page 328 is illustrative and typical of the administrative and supervisory relations which exist between the board of education and the individual teacher.

Whether a teacher is employed in a large city school system, in a town or small city, village, or in a one-room rural school it is advantageous for him to know for what and to whom he is directly responsible and the character of his official relations.

¹ Butterworth, *ibid.*, pp. 40-41.

² Cocking and Gilmore, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

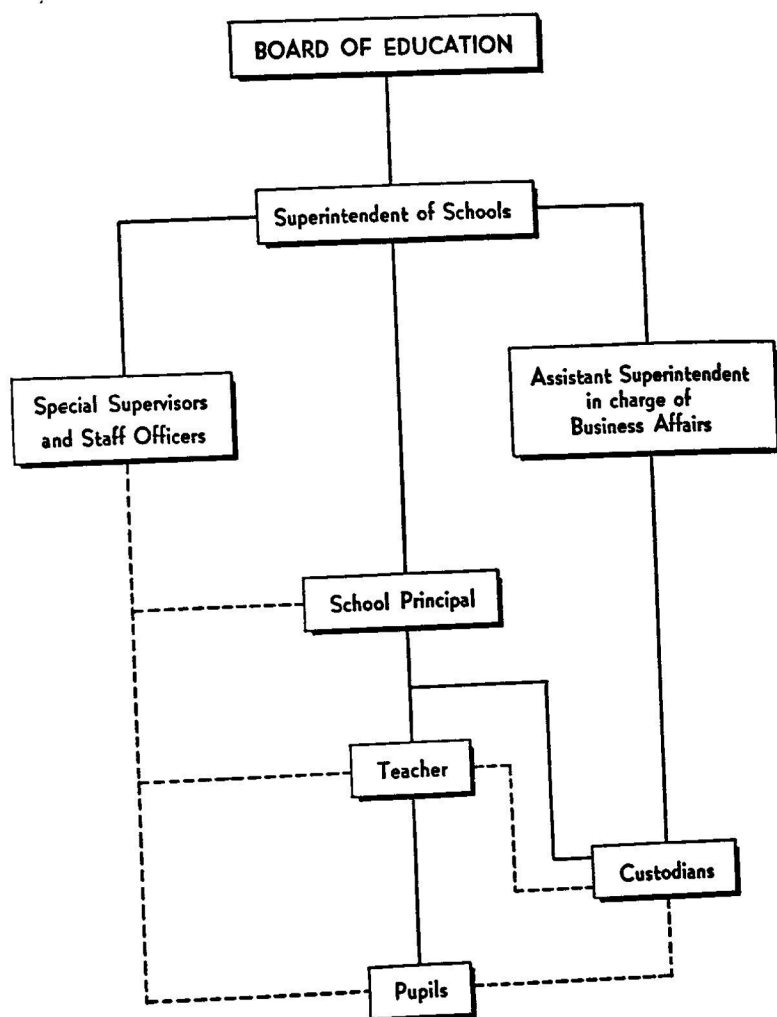


FIGURE 2. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM IN A CITY OF 50,000 POPULATION. (SOLID LINES INDICATE ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONS; BROKEN LINES, ADVISORY RELATIONS)

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Discusses various phases of the problem in communities under 25,000 population.

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Dawson, Howard A. "The Local Unit of School Administration," *American School and University*, IX, 21-25. New York: American School Publishing Corp., 1937.

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Deffenbaugh, W. S. "Some Developments in City School Administration During the Past Fifty Years," *American School Board Journal*, C (March, 1940), 39-41.

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A comprehensive discussion of the relation of education to the social order with particular application to the changing relations of education to other governmental units in the last half century.

Frost, Norman. "What Size School System?" *Nation's Schools*, XXIII (February, 1939), 57-58.

The author contends that, if local school systems are to maintain control of local schools, the administrative units must be effective and economical.

Henry, Nelson B. "City Government and Schools," *Nation's Schools*, XXII (November, 1938), 35-36.

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Henry, Nelson B. "Fundamentals of Democratic Administration in City School Systems," *Elementary School Journal*, XL (January, 1940), 337-45.

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school systems of the country which should be considered in a discussion of the topic.

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Overn, A. V. "Educational Program of the County," *School Executive*, LVI (December, 1936), 147.

A brief discussion of inequalities of school support in Sargent County, North Dakota. Methods are suggested for reducing the number of schools and improving the program of work offered without increasing the taxes.

Quinlivan, Theodore V. "Changing Functions of Local School Boards," *American School Board Journal*, XCVIII (April, 1939), 19-21.

Points out significant transitions in public-school administration, from early practices to present developments, with respect to administrative control, selection and size of boards, fiscal control, and differentiation of legislative and executive functions.

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A historical treatment of the development of multiple and dual executive responsibility in city school administration.

Reller, Theodore Lee. "A State Program for the Training of Superintendents of Schools," *American School Board Journal*, XCVIII (May, 1939), 23-25, 106.

Advocates a state program for the training of school administrators jointly by a university, the state department of education, and selected city superintendents. Suggests a state grant to a university for carrying out the program and a three-year period of training for the student, including an internship under a superintendent who would be made a member of the faculty.

Wright, Frank L. "The Superintendent and the Board of Education," *American School Board Journal*, XCV (September, 1937), 19-21.

The author discusses ways and means of improving the relations between the superintendent and the board of education.

CHAPTER XII

THE TEACHER AND THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

IN EVERY school where there is more than one teacher good organization requires that someone shall have the authority to administer and supervise the work of the school. Where the number of teachers is small it is customary to regard one teacher as the head teacher. The head teacher may be in charge of such general matters as relations of the school with parents and with the school trustees. He may be called upon to deal with problems of school discipline and even to supervise in some measure the work of other teachers. As schools grow larger the responsibilities of principals increase. In a large city school the principal does no teaching. He is the representative of the city administration in dealing with all the problems which arise within the school building. In the last analysis the individual teacher is under the control of the superintendent but for much of the routine supervision and management of the teacher's work the superintendent delegates authority to the principal.

The school principal, it is true, like the teacher is an employee of the same board of education and may have been selected by the same superintendent. When principal and teacher thus find themselves employed and assigned to a unit of a school system a new relationship is established that should be clearly understood. Some teachers fail to comprehend this relationship, believing that the method of appointment involves a special allegiance to the nominating official or to the appointing board. As a result they sometimes tend to ignore the principal and to look to su-

perior officials for instructions and professional advice. The practice generally leads to conflicts which could be easily avoided if the relations with the principal were properly conceived.

AUTHORITY OF PRINCIPAL WITH RESPECT TO THE TEACHER

Relationship of principal and teacher

The diagram of relationships presented in the preceding chapter revealed the line of authority in a school system from board of education through superintendent and principal to the individual teacher. As a member of a staff of a local school system the teacher is under the administrative control of the superintendent, who usually deals with the teacher through his intermediary, the school principal. The administrative relationship of principal and teacher is direct in all elementary schools and in many high schools since there is generally no intermediary officer between principal and teacher. In high schools which have department heads the principal may utilize these heads as intermediary officers without relinquishing his own rights to deal directly with the teachers.

The status of the principal in large systems is that of the professional representative of the superintendent in the school with authority specified in instructions issued verbally or in writing by the superintendent. The principal is also the official representative of the board of education in the school over which he presides with authority conferred by rules or regulations and implied by the character of the principal's position in the system. Generally speaking, it would not be considered good judgment in such systems for the teacher to go over the head of the principal in seeking advice or authority in dealing with problems of organization, administration, and instruction. Neither would it be considered good practice for the superintendent and his central-office supervisors to deal directly with the teacher in matters pertaining to the teacher's work without the knowledge of the principal.

Instructions to teachers from special supervisors should be given through the office of the principal or with the full approval of the principal. In no other way can conflicts in administration be avoided and responsibility for results be definitely established.

A different theory of administration prevails in some small and middle-sized school systems. Here, the principal of the school holds a titular position as a head teacher, but looks to the superintendent and central-office supervisors for administrative and instructional leadership. This type of principal takes care of the clerical work of the particular school and assumes managerial responsibility for the control of pupils in the school building and on the grounds. In such a school a teacher would seek the assistance of the principal in obtaining needed supplies, in managing an unruly pupil, or in adjusting difficulties with parents of pupils or with other teachers. For guidance in professional improvement or in the solution of instructional problems the teacher would consult the appropriate official in the central office. If the principal were consulted by the teacher, it would be merely as a matter of professional courtesy, since the principal holds no implied relation of professional leadership over his teachers.

The tendency at present in most town and city school systems is to regard the principal as the intellectual leader of his school and to hold him responsible for the professional improvement of his teachers. When a school system accepts this policy a heavy obligation is imposed upon its professional leaders for the selection of principals capable of providing the instructional leadership needed by teachers and of directing their in-service training. If the principal lacks the qualifications which the responsibilities specified imply, the school system could scarcely expect the teacher to accept the principal's leadership.

Responsibility of principal in teacher selection

The responsibility of the principal in the selection of teachers varies greatly from system to system. In small and middle-sized school systems where a very close personal relationship exists be-

tween the superintendent and the principal, the principal may be accorded considerable responsibility in the recruitment of teachers. When the principal reports to his superintendent the need for a teacher, the superintendent may ask the principal to offer suggestions regarding possible recruits or to consult the file of applicants and to select therefrom individuals who possess the qualifications needed to fill the prospective vacancy. While the nomination of the teacher is made by the superintendent, the responsibility for selection is shared with the principal concerned. The teacher so selected realizes that his services are desired by the principal of the school to which assignment is made.

It is difficult to carry out the procedure described in the foregoing paragraph in a large school system in which many teachers are required. Here the task of selecting teachers is too great to be assumed by the superintendent in close consultation with individual principals. Personnel officers are generally appointed in such systems to conduct examinations for the preparation of eligible lists of teachers for different types of positions. Appointments to vacancies or to new positions are made by the superintendent from the top of the appropriate eligible list.

In the large systems the principal generally has virtually no responsibility for the selection of teachers to fill vacancies in his school. The choice of teachers and their assignments to the local schools is a function of the central office. The principal is permitted to make a specific request indicating the grade or subject for which a teacher is desired, but the assignment goes to the first person on the qualified list unless requests for transfers are on file from regular teachers in other local schools. The regular teacher with the longest period of service would be entitled to prior consideration for the position to be filled.

The rules of boards of education governing appointment from eligible lists and transfer from one school to another are usually very rigid and the enforcement of the rules by the central office is strict. As a matter of fact, the teacher at the top of the eligible list may be assigned to a vacancy without consideration of

special fitness for the position to be filled. For example, the principal of a school which enrolls many underprivileged children desires a teacher who is interested in the problems presented by this special type of pupil. The teacher eligible to appointment is sometimes not fitted for the type of service which the position requires. The principal concerned usually has no choice in the matter; he must accept the teacher whose name is at the top of the list. In some school systems the rules permit the assignment to be made from the first three names on the qualified list. In such systems the principal is privileged to consider with the appointing officer the special fitness of the eligible persons for the position to be filled.

While individual principals may question the justice of being held responsible for the accomplishment of a teacher whose assignment is made without reference to specific fitness for position or school need, the plan may work out better in the end than would be the case if considerable latitude were allowed in the making of assignments. The mere fact that choice is permitted from several candidates near the top of the qualified list creates the possibility for the use of personal influence and "political pull" when a vacancy is known to exist. For this reason some administrative officers prefer to eliminate the possibility of outside interference by giving the assignment to a vacancy to the first name on the list, and then working out later through inter-school transfers any adjustments in personnel which need to be made.

The problem of the principal after the assignment has been made is the adjustment of the new teacher to the local school. This problem may be solved through transfer within the particular school or through subsequent transfer within the system.

Responsibility of principal for teacher rating

The relation of the principal to the teachers in his building can perhaps be made clear by pointing out that he is responsible to the school administration for periodic formal reports on the competency of teachers. He is called upon by the rules of the school

system to rate teachers and to report his ratings to the central office. Jennings¹ found in a study of the rules and regulations of 179 city boards of education that 72, or approximately 40 per cent, required the school principals to report to the central office on the efficiency of teachers. An earlier study by King² of the rating practices of superintendents in ninety-two cities of more than 25,000 population revealed that the principal was held responsible for rating in all the cities using rating scales. A later study by the National Education Association³ in cities ranging in population from 2,500 to over 100,000 showed that 45.6 per cent of the number reporting practiced teacher rating. The lowest percentage (32.6) was found in the population group, 2,500 to 5,000, and the highest percentage (76.2) was found in the group with populations in excess of 100,000. Since rating by principals tends to increase with the population of the cities studied, it is evident that teacher rating as a function of administration is greatly influenced by the presence in the systems of supervising principals.

The fact that the principal is required to rate his teachers establishes a responsibility for the improvement of instruction. This responsibility begins with the assignment of a teacher to the principal's school. He should and generally does have the authority for the grade placement of the teacher. This authority is, however, limited in the elementary schools of certain cities by the use of three types of certificates that restrict assignments to the grades for which the individual teacher is approved. One type of certificate entitles the holder to teach in the kindergarten and first and second grades; a second type entitles the holder to teach in grades three to eight; a third type carries the right to teach in

¹ Joe Jennings, *Rules and Regulations Concerning the Employed Personnel of City Schools*, p. 50. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1929.

² LeRoy A. King, "The Present Status of Teacher Rating," *American School Board Journal*, LXX (February, 1925), 44-46.

³ *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*. Part II: *The Retention, Promotion, and Improvement of Teachers*, p. 65. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. X, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1932.

any grade from the kindergarten to grade eight. The first two types of certificates limit the principal in the grade assignments of his teachers, and hence restrict possible adjustments between teacher and school. In a similar manner, the high-school principal is restricted in the assignment of teachers by the fields of preparation for which certificates have been issued.

The purpose of teacher rating by a principal should be the improvement of the teaching service. The rating of a teacher should be preceded, and usually is, by many conferences between the teacher and principal in which the principal aims to be of assistance to the teacher in improving his work. The act of rating can be thought of as a kind of summing up by the principal of his judgment with regard to the degree to which the teacher has shown competency and improvement in his work. The fact that the principal has the authority to rate the teacher is quite certain to give weight to any suggestions that the principal makes.

Just as there are many marking systems employed in rating pupils, so are there many different practices of rating teachers in different school systems. In some school systems the evaluation is general; that is, the teacher is merely classified as superior, excellent, satisfactory, poor, or unsatisfactory. No rating sheet is used to show the items considered in arriving at the classification. Such rating is for administrative rather than supervisory purposes, and its value is extremely doubtful.

In other school systems analytical rating scales have been developed to facilitate teacher evaluation. The worth of such scales depends upon how they were developed and the method of their use by a given principal. It has been found that analytical rating scales are most useful as means of improving teachers when both parties to the rating — principals and teachers — have a like understanding of the items on which the rating is based. Furthermore, in conferences between principals and teachers principals should make specific references to the points in which they regard a teacher as strong and to those in which they regard him as subject to criticism.

An excellent example of a rating scale which evaluates both the effectiveness of instruction and professional service of a teacher is that shown in Figure 3. To receive a rating of *good* in "Instructional Effectiveness," the teacher must maintain the interests of pupils and follow accepted practices in instruction resulting in the promotion of normal growth on the part of pupils and in the improvement of their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and habits. A rating below *good* in "Instructional Effectiveness" cannot be considered acceptable, even if superior ratings are given in other items. To be regarded as a superior teacher, an individual must be rated at least *good* and must develop successful practices in instruction which stimulate pupils to self-activity and pronounced growth in knowledge, skills, attitudes, and habits. For the su-

Items	Honor	Supr.	Good	Fair	Unsat.
1. Instructional Effectiveness.....					
2. Contribution to Good Teaching Conditions....					
3. Extra-Curricular and Extra-Class Service.....					
4. Service to the Profession at Large.....					
5. Personal Attributes.....	X				
6. Clerical Skill.....	X	X			
7. Efficient Use of Time.....	X	X			
8. Professional Interest and Growth.....					
9. Professional Adaptability.....	X				
10. Physical Fitness.....	X	X			
11. Professional Relationships.....	X	X			
12. Community Relationships.....	X	X			

FIGURE 3. SCALE USED IN RATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHERS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA. (Courtesy of Superintendent DeWitt S. Morgan.)

perior teacher to receive an *honor* rating, it is necessary for him to develop new teaching procedures, to stimulate pupils to unusual achievements, and to encourage his pupils to set for themselves and attain worth-while personal goals.

The rating of *fair* should be given to the teacher who follows accepted practices in a routine manner, lacks resourcefulness, and fails to adapt procedures so as to bring about the expected growth on the part of all his pupils. If the teacher follows questionable practices and fails to maintain pupil interest and to secure the expected pupil growth, he should be rated *unsatisfactory*.

In some of the areas, such as "Clerical Skill," no effort by the teacher need be made to exceed the rating of *good*. If the teacher does clerical work in a manner which makes special administrative attention unnecessary, he is considered *good*. He is to be rated only *fair* if his clerical work required occasional administrative attention and *unsatisfactory* if his clerical work is frequently careless and inaccurate.

For a teacher to secure a general honor evaluation he should obtain an *honor* rating in "Instructional Effectiveness," a rating of *superior* in one other area, and no rating below *good* in the remaining areas. An alternative set of ratings justifying honor evaluation is *superior* in "Instructional Effectiveness," an honor rating in one other area, and general ratings in the remaining areas sufficient to give the teacher an average rating of *superior*.

The rating plan discussed is not used as a basis for salary adjustment in the system in question but for the purpose of discovering individuals who should receive consideration for special appointments and professional promotions within the system. The greatest value of the plan consists in the analysis of teaching for the individual teacher and the co-operative evaluation of his teaching effectiveness, as the basis of supervisory counseling.

Professional opinion differs greatly regarding the items on which teachers should be rated and the methods of rating, but there is unanimity in the belief that some kind of evaluation of teacher effectiveness is essential if the principal is to make a con-

tribution to the improvement of instruction. The principal must therefore accept the responsibility for rating and must seek to perform the function in a manner beneficial to the individual teacher. Best results will be realized if rating is viewed co-operatively by principal and teacher as a means of insuring efficient services to pupils.

Responsibility for teacher promotion

In large cities particularly it would be difficult for the central office to base promotions on merit without the systematic evaluation of teacher effectiveness by school principals. The semi-annual or annual ratings of the principals are filed in the central office in many systems and used as the basis in recommending advancements in rank and for professional promotions. The professional future of the teacher thus depends to no small extent on the evaluation of the principal in the school in which the teacher is employed. It is sometimes thought that the responsibility of the principal for teacher promotion is entirely too great, since evaluation is still largely subjective and therefore susceptible to large human error. Accordingly, some systems provide promotional examinations which enable the teacher to offer evidence of growth through professional study in addition to that provided through the periodic evaluations of the principal.

Since the weight of the principal's judgment is large in teacher promotion, it is often necessary for the central office to adopt a liberal policy with respect to the transfer of teachers on request in order that evaluations may be received from different principals. Supplementary evaluations by assistant or district superintendents and general and special supervisors are also utilized in some school systems in the preparation of lists of teachers eligible to receive promotions. However, it would be difficult for any teacher in school systems efficiently administered to secure advancement without a favorable rating from some school principal under whom the teacher had served.

Responsibility for teacher transfer

The rules of boards of education in city systems very generally provide for the transfer of teachers on recommendation of a school principal. Such a recommendation must be supported by evidence that the work of the teacher is unsatisfactory in the school over which the principal presides and that as a result the progress of pupils instructed by the teacher is retarded. Refusal to act favorably on the principal's recommendation for the transfer of a teacher is equivalent to an expression of lack of confidence in the principal by the central office. As long as the principal is regarded as the responsible head of his school, it is imperative that his authority to recommend and virtually to demand the transfer of a teacher for cause be sustained.

The recourse of the teacher in case of recommended transfer is a request for a thorough investigation by the central office. A decision in favor of the teacher sometimes results in the transfer of the principal or in mutual understanding between principal and teacher that makes future co-operation possible.

Responsibility for teacher dismissal

The charges leading to the dismissal of a teacher usually originate with the school principal in city school systems in which the principal is the immediate administrative officer of the teacher. States which have enacted tenure laws ordinarily specify the causes for which a teacher with permanent status may be dismissed and the legal procedure to be followed. In school systems with indefinite tenure the responsibility for the dismissal of a teacher is somewhat scattered, although the action is generally initiated by the school principal, especially in cases of inefficiency, insubordination, and neglect of duties. The procedure generally followed in such systems is for the principal to rate the teacher "unsatisfactory" and to recommend dismissal or transfer to another school. The immediate executive officer over the principal then makes an investigation and recommends dismissal or transfer. In case dismissal is recommended either a committee

of the board of education or the entire board reviews the evidence submitted, grants a hearing to the teacher, if such is desired, and then renders its decision.

In large school systems, so much time generally elapses between the initial rating of "unsatisfactory" by a principal and the action of the board with respect to dismissal, that the principal usually considers that he has little responsibility for the elimination of inefficient teachers from the school system. Although exercising responsibility for rating and the right to insist on transfer, he rarely recommends dismissal, preferring to leave that responsibility to the central office.

Trials for dismissal seldom occur. The unsatisfactory teacher is transferred from one school to another until retirement is eventually forced or permanent tenure is secured. This type of administration is regarded with disfavor by both teachers and school patrons. It causes low professional morale and unsavory public relations.

Responsibility for the development of the teacher

School systems which employ supervising principals generally hold the principal responsible for the development of the teacher. The teacher is regarded as a professional asset of the system, since his original training, selection, and in-service training represent a considerable investment on the part of the state and the locality. To permit the teacher's talents to remain undeveloped or to become misdirected through lack of competent supervision is a public loss.

As the responsible head of a local school the principal is expected to know the potentialities of a new teacher on assignment to his school and to place the teacher in the organization so that the best possible results are obtained for the system. His efforts to improve the teacher after assignment are not regarded by superior officials in the light of altruistic services but as professional duties required by the responsibilities of his position.

The principal should also appraise the possibilities of the staff

members when he is assigned to a new school, since he must assume responsibility for directing their professional improvement. His staff of teachers should be better developed at the close of each school year than they were at the beginning. The change in the proficiency of the staff during the year may be regarded as a measure of the principal's professional effectiveness.

RIGHTS OF THE TEACHER

The teacher as an employee of a school system and as a member of the staff of a particular school possesses certain legal, professional, and personal rights which superior officers are under obligation to respect. Since the school principal is usually the immediate administrative officer of the teacher, it is important that these rights be mutually understood. Failure on the part of either principal or teacher to observe the appropriate relationship may result in serious consequences to the individuals concerned and to the local school system.

Contractual rights

The contractual rights of the teacher are largely determined by the state jurisdiction in which he is employed. The law of the state may guarantee tenure to the teacher after a probationary period. The teacher so employed enjoys a legal status subject to compliance with the regulations of the employing board. In states which have not enacted tenure laws, the contract of the teacher must be renewed from year to year or for such terms as may be agreed upon by the employing board. In the absence of restricting law the board may exercise wide discretionary power in the enactment of rules and regulations pertaining to the teacher's contractual rights and the courts will not interfere unless there is gross abuse by the board in the use of its power. A contract may be issued to the teacher for either extended or indefinite term by a board acting in good faith and without fraud or collusion and the contract so issued will be binding on the board members' suc-

cessors in office. Such contracts are to be preferred to those issued annually, since the rights of the teacher are safeguarded when he is protected from the caprice of new board members who not infrequently on assuming office may attempt to make changes in employed personnel before becoming adequately informed as to the merits of the personnel or the effects on the school system of unnecessary changes.

If there is any uncertainty among the teachers of a school system as to their contractual rights, the board of education should remove such uncertainty by providing written contracts mutually negotiated and legally executed. The teacher must not expect such a contract to be a one-sided instrument, which protects only himself. The authority to employ also carries by implication the authority to dismiss. The laws governing such authority usually specify the causes for dismissal and indicate the procedure to be followed.

In the case of a teacher's resignation or abandonment of contract the general precedent is that he cannot recover the unpaid portion of his salary. The precedent with respect to nonrecovery on a contract which is breached rests on the theory that the contract is for service in entirety and not in part. The laws of some states permit recovery in *quantum meruit*—as much as he deserves.

In school systems operating under tenure codes the rights of the teacher are specified in statutory provisions. After tenure status has been attained the teacher can be dismissed only for the causes stipulated and according to the manner prescribed in the law. In such school systems administrative officers must comply with the provisions of the tenure law in transferring teachers within the system if the change involves loss in salary or rank. The legal provisions which safeguard teachers with tenure from dismissals are in general as follows: (1) charges must be made in writing, (2) notice of a hearing must be given, (3) the hearing must be before the board as a body, and (4) the teacher must be given the opportunity with counsel to be heard. In case of dismissal the

statutory procedure with respect to appeal must be followed before the teacher is privileged to seek redress in the courts.

Professional appeal

The teacher should have the right to appeal from an arbitrary ruling of the principal without jeopardizing his professional standing. The line should be open for him to the professional head of the school system in which he is employed. While good administration requires that the principal and teacher put forth an earnest effort to reach an agreement through discussion, in case differences in views cannot be reconciled, the teacher should be privileged to appeal to the next administrative officer in line.

To participate in consideration of school policy

As a professionally trained person the teacher is entitled to participate in the consideration of educational policy. The principal should therefore encourage his teachers to participate in the discussion of problems and policies affecting the school. The ideas contributed by a teacher on a given problem may be administratively impractical and must therefore be rejected by the principal.

But the mere fact that an idea is rejected need not of itself discourage the author of the idea from further creative endeavor. It is the way in which the decision to reject the idea is made, the part that the teacher plays in the making of the decision, that determines the consequences. If the decision is made in such a way as to imply that the mental attitude of the administrator is, "Your job is to teach, mine to administer," the results are pretty sure to be disastrous. Only a little better is the attitude often taken, "I will listen to your arguments, but then it will be necessary for me to decide." Such an attitude makes the teacher a defendant and the administrator a judge. No teacher should be made to feel that he is on trial for having expressed an idea.¹

¹ C. L. Cushman, "In-Service Training of Personnel for Effective Participation in City School Administration," *Democratic Practices in School Administration*, pp. 75-76. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

While the rejection of an idea offered by the teacher in the interest of school improvement may not afford a sufficient issue for a professional appeal to a superior administrative officer, the way the rejection is made may influence the teacher to request a transfer to another school or to seek another position.

To have personality respected

Administrative officers generally give much weight to the personality of the teacher as a factor in teaching. Possibly no single factor is more important in dealing with children. It is therefore important that the principal recognize that his teachers have personalities which are susceptible to the influence of his personality quite as much as are the personalities of the pupils to that of their teacher.

Teachers who are wholesome, well-balanced individuals are entitled to have their personalities respected by their principals. Unfortunately, there are still some principals of the semi-dictator type who are offended if a teacher develops procedures of his own instead of following the rule-of-thumb techniques prescribed by the principal. In schools so administered a teacher is afraid to attempt creative work because of fear of the effect on the principal's ratings. Feelings of fear, worry, strain, and insecurity shackle the real personality of the teacher causing him unconsciously to pass on to his pupils the handicap of repressions. Under such conditions, it is difficult for the teacher to develop the effectively integrated personality which should result from creative professional work. Unfortunately, the teacher who is capable of doing superior work suffers most when the administrator fails to realize the importance of respecting the teacher's personality.¹

If dictatorial methods are ineffective in dealing with aggressive teachers with strong personalities they are usually even less effective in dealing with weak teachers. This latter group can

¹ Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, pp. 252-81. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

sometimes be helped by sympathetic instruction in methods of dealing with pupils which give them confidence in themselves. In other words, the duty of a principal is to try to strengthen and develop desirable personality traits in all the members of the staff of his school. It is certain that they are not helped by the dictatorial type of administration.

To participate in the determination of policies affecting professional welfare

Teachers very often fail to give principals the kind of co-operation which is necessary to the highest morale of the school. While the duties of the principal in his relations with teachers have been emphasized in the preceding paragraphs and will continue to be emphasized throughout the chapter, it is legitimate to pause and indicate something of the stimulation that teachers may give to their principals. There are many opportunities for helpful suggestions, such as improvements that can be made in school routine, needed administrative forms, out-of-school problems requiring consideration, and ways of securing better pupil and parent co-operation.

When all is said and done the fact remains that the effectiveness of a school is largely conditioned by the principal's methods and personality. Teachers should recognize this fact. They should think when seeking employment of the positive or negative contribution which will be made to their success by the kind of principal under whom they work. Unfortunately it is not always possible for a teacher seeking a position to select the kind of principal who will be most helpful. If a teacher finds that the principal is weak or otherwise unable to help his staff the recourse which is often open is to request a transfer.

One writer in indicating the kind of principal from whom a teacher has a right to seek release writes as follows:

Why is it that in one school the teachers leave the building with the pupils, never go to summer school, read little professional literature, and carry on throughout the day with little of the sparkle of life, while

in another school teachers work until dinnertime, go to summer school or to workshops in great numbers, read with enthusiasm, and find teaching in general an exciting adventure? . . . It is because in the one school a new idea has little chance for fair consideration, the teacher has no adequate chance to share in determining what is done with his idea, while in the other school ideas are as welcome as "the flowers that bloom in the spring."¹

An area in which teachers have had little if any voice is the determination of the rules of boards of education and the regulations of school principals pertaining to the guidance of teachers in the performance of their professional duties. Analysis of such rules and regulations frequently reveals an arbitrariness which is not conducive to sympathetic co-operation. Few teachers will accept without resentment rules or regulations which unreasonably restrict their personal liberties, or which impose requirements entirely beyond the bounds of professional obligations and services.

Instructions of principals to teachers couched in terms such as, "You are hereby ordered to have your reports on monthly attendance in my office not later than 3:30 P.M. on Friday," may be read with a chuckle and faithfully executed, but the effect on the individuals concerned is not conducive to professional morale.

The preparation of a book of rules for a school system provides an excellent opportunity for the enlistment of professional co-operation and participation in the solution of problems which can never be solved by arbitrarily adopted administrative regulations. Rules should be mutually serviceable to administrators and teachers. When rules are made without the right of consideration by the employees who are expected to benefit from such regulations the value of the rules is seriously impaired.

It is not putting it too strongly to say that to a considerable extent the enthusiasm of teachers for participation in administration rises or falls according to the extent that they are permitted to participate in the formulation and revision of school rules or policies.

All rules and policies should be viewed as the products of the minds

¹ Cushman, *op. cit.*, pp. 76-77.

of men and women and subject to change at any time when men and women may think change desirable. In the ideally administered school each teacher would feel that no rule or policy of the school was so far removed from his control that he couldn't have some part in its revision or repeal.¹

To assume responsibility commensurate with authority

The teacher as a director of a classroom unit possesses authority granted by state law, school-board rules, and by administrative regulations. For example, the teacher has been generally considered responsible for the management of the pupils placed under his charge. In the colonial schools the master was expected to train his pupils to be obedient and to respect authority in school, church, and state. Because strict control and exacting demands were considered the best methods for developing obedience to and respect for authority, the master was regarded competent precisely in the degree to which he controlled the school with an iron hand. This responsibility for pupil control often led to the use of physical force in the management of pupils. This authority to use corporal punishment in maintaining control was seldom challenged except by the pupils themselves. The authority of the teacher was thus commensurate with his responsibility.

In more recent years society has revolted against the exercise of authoritarian control by teachers. Some states have enacted laws prohibiting the use of corporal punishment. Such punishment is either prohibited or restricted by school-board rules in many school systems. The denial of this authority has been accompanied by a release in responsibility. Now the unruly pupil is sent by the teacher to the school principal for discipline. The principal in turn may suspend the pupil from school pending the co-operation of parents in bringing about a change in the pupil's attitude.

In some schools the responsibility of the teacher may be so restricted by board rules and by administrative regulations that he

¹ Cushman, *ibid.*, p. 78.

is virtually deprived of the authority which inheres in his position as the head of a classroom unit. The responsibility which the teacher is thus permitted to assume is not commensurate with his rightful authority. Under the condition he ceases to function as a responsible individual reacting with initiative to the problem situations which arise in his work. When confronted with a problem he tries to identify the rule or instruction which specifically applies. Failing to discover the appropriate regulation he follows the safe course and consults the school principal.

Experience in social organization has clearly demonstrated the soundness of the principle that responsibility and authority must go hand in hand. To organize or to administer a school in such a manner as to destroy the essential relationship between responsibility and authority definitely endangers the success of the school. The ideal relationship between teacher and principal where both are thoroughly trained would imply (1) that the teacher has a clear conception of the purposes of education for each child under his care and a thorough knowledge of the best way to achieve these purposes; and (2) that the principal conceives his major function to be that of providing the conditions which should enable the teacher to accomplish the purposes that he finds desirable and necessary. The teacher working under proper conditions has responsibility fully commensurate with authority to achieve his purposes.

To grow in service

If teaching is to attain the status of a profession the right of the teacher to grow in service must be carefully safeguarded. There is no greater responsibility for a school principal than that of directing the professional growth of his teachers. He must function as a stimulating professional leader in his school as well as a successful executive. If he would have his teachers grow in service he must provide the elements of professional growth.

The elements of professional growth require direction and control. Professional ambition, for example, is an element of growth which may

be developed in individual teachers to the point of personal selfishness, and, as a result, interfere with professional spirit and true professional growth. On the contrary, professional ambition may be dormant in individual teachers, and before it will develop, considerable nourishment and direction must be supplied. Normal development of professional ambition in a corps of teachers seldom results without wise professional leadership on the part of the principal. He must provide for his teachers the incentives to professional growth.¹

Some of these incentives present problems for administrative officers not easy to solve. As a rule the problems are solved satisfactorily only with the fullest co-operation of the teacher. A number of these problems are considered in Part III of this book. Suffice it to say here that school administrators and school systems which do not recognize the importance of providing appropriate incentives for professional growth overlook a right of the teacher that both directly and indirectly exerts a powerful influence on his work.

For example, the incentive of professional recognition may be effectively used with every teacher who has demonstrated efficiency in any particular line in a school. A faculty meeting at which individual teachers are invited to make reports on outstanding accomplishments not only gives professional recognition to the particular individuals but also enriches the experience of the faculty as a whole. Colonel Francis W. Parker used this incentive effectively with faculty members throughout his professional career. If a member of his staff developed a promising practice in classroom instruction, the individual was invited to demonstrate the practice at a faculty meeting after which the contribution was thoroughly discussed. Both the individual and his associates were professionally stimulated as a result of the recognition given and the benefits received.

¹ William C. Reavis, Paul R. Pierce, and Edward H. Stullken, *The Elementary School*, p. 351. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIP OF PRINCIPAL
AND TEACHER

In the foregoing section of this chapter it has been shown that the principal is the responsible administrative officer of the teacher but that the teacher enjoys certain rights which the principal is legally and professionally bound to respect. The relationship of the principal and teacher thus presents an important problem in personnel administration. Failure on the part of either to understand the relationship or to observe the proper ethics involved may result in lack of harmony and serious maladjustments. Correct understanding and full appreciation of the relationship, on the contrary, become the basis of intelligent co-operation and effective team work.

Line and staff relations

As members of a school organization which involves, at least, some of the principles of line and staff relations,¹ it is essential that the official status of principal and teacher be clearly defined. As the head of the school over which he presides the principal becomes "the captain of his ship"² with general responsibility under state law, official rules and regulations of the board of education, and written or verbal instructions from superior administrative officers, for the realization of the school functions.

The teacher is a minor administrative officer between the principal and the area of service to which the teacher is assigned. The

¹ The terms line and staff are military designations. The line consists of the hierarchy of officers from the commander in chief to the one of lowest rank. Each is subject to commands of the next above. Commands thus pass from the highest officer to the next in line and so on. The staff consists of technical advisers without authority. The members of the staff serve as consultants to the officers of the line. In school administration line officers are designated as executives; staff officers as advisers or consultants.

² W. C. Reavis, E. C. Bolmeier, and W. A. Stumpf, *Relations of School Principals to the Central Administrative Office in Large Cities*, p. 189. Bulletin No. 66, Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, 1937.

principal as the immediate administrative officer of the teacher is responsible to superior administrative officers for the character of the service rendered by the teacher. This administrative relationship between the principal and teacher gives them a mutual interest in each other's success.

The line relationship existing between the principal and teacher should not involve a rigid adherence to official precedents regarding the origin of administrative instructions or the freedom to interpret such instructions. Good line practice encourages voluntary suggestions from subordinate officers and free discussion between these officers and those in command. For instance, the original idea of a policy for a particular school might emanate from the teacher. The principal, after considering the idea with the author, might submit it to other teachers for discussion. If the idea is adopted as a policy, all members of the school staff have shared in its development and feel responsible for its successful operation.

Such a democratic procedure does not nullify the line relationship that exists between the principal and the teacher. On the contrary it renders applicable and effective a plan of organization which otherwise would be of little value in school administration.

The relations of principal and teacher to the central-office staff may prove to be the cause of friction if the responsibilities of line and staff officers are not clearly defined. Since line officers are executives and staff officers are consultants, instructions, directions, and interpretations of school policies to teachers should not be given by persons with staff status except with the approval and sanction of the line officers concerned. For example, official instructions by a consultant, such as a supervisor of music or physical education are not to be recognized in many school systems by the principal unless the instructions are countersigned by an executive officer having jurisdiction in the area of service in which the instructions are to be applied. The principal of a school has the right to interpret the instruction to the teachers of his school.

Many difficulties between principal and teachers arise because of conflicts over instructions given out by staff officers. To avoid conflict, instructions to teachers originating with staff officers should be issued in writing by the line officer who accepts responsibility for the communication, that is, by the superintendent, assistant superintendent, district superintendent, or school principal. When, for instance, the teachers of a school system receive written instructions from a music supervisor stating that the regular assignment for music instruction for a certain period is to be discontinued and that attention is to be given to practice on certain designated work preparatory to a special program, the letter of instructions should be signed by the administrative officers responsible for the special program which has been planned. If oral instructions are issued regarding changes in program these instructions should be given to the principal.

The consultant who attempts supervision in a local school should do so only with the approval of the principal or as the official representative of an executive officer superior to the principal. In the latter case good administration dictates that the consultant carry a written authorization from the executive or that this officer communicate to the school principal verbally or in writing his wishes in the matter. In no other way can a school organization be maintained in which administrative officers are held responsible for results in the areas of their jurisdiction.

Members of the same profession

School principals and teachers are sometimes regarded as belonging to different professions. Principals are classified as school administrators and have their own professional organizations—the National Association of Secondary-School Principals or the Department of Elementary-School Principals. Teachers divide into many groups according to their different levels of activity, degrees of preparation, and fields of special interest. This tendency toward the drawing of lines of separation between the interests and organizations on the part of administrative officers and

teachers has caused many people to regard teaching as a profession without unity of purpose.

In recent years a strong effort has been made to bring the administrative and teacher groups together in state education associations. One of the purposes of this effort is the development on the part of those engaged in education of a group consciousness with respect to teaching as a profession.

That such a consciousness does not exist is evidenced by the apparently irreconcilable differences and lack of common purposes between different teacher groups in many cities. In some of these cities there is little co-operation between administrative and teacher groups. Even the teacher groups are so divided that they are unable to unite in a common professional organization. The personnel of these groups often act as though they were not members of the same profession.

The first point of attack in developing a common purpose on the part of those engaged in education is in each of the schools where principal and different teacher groups must unite in common service. Here a group consciousness can be developed which is basic to the teaching profession. Differences between teacher groups can be resolved and principal and teachers can become co-workers in a common enterprise.

Co-workers in a common enterprise

Whatever the official relations of principal and teacher may be, a school will not benefit fully from their services unless its work is conceived as a common enterprise. The principal who views the school as his own private project will scarcely be able to enlist the wholehearted co-operation and support of the teaching staff in carrying on the innumerable activities essential to the school's success. Similarly, the teacher who assumes no responsibility for the success of the school beyond the activities of the classroom, however successfully these activities may be performed, occupies only a minor role in the total school enterprise. The relationship between principal and teacher has been emphasized in foregoing

discussions dealing with the participation of the teacher in the development of administrative policies, the use of democratic procedures in administration and in the co-operative relations between principal and teacher as line officers.

If the school enterprise is to succeed the relations of principal and teacher must be characterized by reciprocity and not by rivalry. There will be praise for both if the enterprise succeeds, and censure if it fails. One cannot succeed without the fullest co-operation of the other, and if either fails the other must share the consequences.

From what has been said it should be apparent that the school enterprise requires the best effort of both principal and teacher. No mere charting of theoretical relationships will insure its success. Only through the personal identification of each member of the school staff with the purposes and activities of the enterprise will its success be achieved. Each member must therefore be willing to accept responsibility in any area of service which the welfare of the school requires. The task of the principal is to bring to a focus all the assets of his staff in carrying on the common enterprise.

In the development of a program of student activities appropriate for a given school, for example, the principal must have the interest and support of his entire faculty. The faculty should share the responsibility with the principal for the program that exists and for the ultimate program which should be developed. New activities which are added to the program should be approved by the faculty. If activities are unsatisfactory and require reorganization, the decision to reorganize should be made by the faculty. Only through the assumption of responsibility for results can the co-operative participation of faculty members be enlisted by the school principal in developing and sponsoring an effective program of student activities.

Joint responsibility for the individual pupil

The welfare of the individual pupil is the joint responsibility of principal and teacher. This responsibility in the past has all too frequently been scattered. The principal has assumed the responsibility for the general management of the pupil; the teacher, for the pupil's instruction. As a result the problems of the pupil in management and instruction have been dealt with as unrelated aspects of his growth. For an infraction of school regulations, the pupil was disciplined by the principal without a serious effort to ascertain the cause and to deal with it constructively. For failure to accomplish the work of the classroom the pupil was often misjudged or even disciplined by the teacher without knowledge of the causes which contributed to the unsatisfactory work. The teacher and the principal each acted separately as though no other controlling agency were in existence. As a result the individual pupil has often suffered because of the un-co-ordinated efforts of those in control of his education.

The tendency at present in many schools is to consider the individual pupil a unit with respect to administration and instruction. Cumulative records of the individual's growth and development are kept as a basis for present interpretation and future prediction. Judgments are formed by principal and teacher in the light of the series of facts which have characterized the pupil's previous behavior. Neither principal nor teacher should risk an important decision affecting the pupil without due consideration of the various facts which may have bearing on the case.

Instead of viewing discipline as an end in itself, the principal should want to understand the relation to learning of the conditions which appear to afford an occasion for discipline. Perhaps a problem in learning may be a causative factor of the problem for discipline. If so, the correction of the causative factor rather than discipline will produce the positive effect desired. In a similar manner, the giving of failing marks to pupils as an incentive to improvement often does not act as an incentive at all, and good results can scarcely be expected until the causes of the

unsatisfactory achievement have been found and suitable corrective or remedial measures have been employed. The finding of the cause and the application of curative measures generally require not only the co-operative assistance of principal and teacher but also in many instances the help of other teachers and school specialists.

It should be clear that service to the individual pupil provides for the principal and the teacher a common problem which cannot be satisfactorily solved in the great majority of cases without mutual sharing of knowledge and co-operative thinking. The needs of the individual pupil stimulate principal and teacher to consider new materials and methods of instruction, to make studies of home and community conditions, to seek the assistance of specialists in diagnosing and in correcting causes which interfere with the pupil's progress, to provide materials for recreational reading, to aid the pupil in the pursuit of hobbies, and to utilize the resources of the school system in the interest of the pupil. In providing for such needs, principal and teacher find a common basis for professional service and personal co-operation.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE TEACHER AND TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

TEACHERS' organizations were practically unknown in colonial times. Most of the schools were small and were separated by considerable distances. Teachers had few reasons for knowing one another and little need for professional organizations. In fact, meetings would have been virtually impossible, even if desired, because of distance and the difficulties of transportation. Furthermore, many of the persons engaged in teaching regarded their work only as a temporary occupation and not as a profession.

The rapid growth of urban communities after the War of 1812 brought teachers together in town and city school systems. Here the transfer of pupils between schools created common problems for teachers. Subsequently, the grading of the schools provided new reasons for professional relations. The problems of in-service improvement forced teachers to abandon their tendency to work in isolation and led them to cultivate relations with professional associates.

EARLY EFFORTS TO FORM PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The need among the teachers of New England for group attacks on common problems gave rise to the organization of the American Institute of Instruction in Rhode Island in 1830. This organization is believed to have been the first voluntary association of teachers in the United States to take on a permanent character.

That the founders of the organization intended it to become national in scope and generally inclusive is revealed by the statement issued in calling the first regular meeting:

All teachers, either of common schools or in institutions of a higher order, and all gentlemen who have ever been engaged in the business of teaching, and who still take an interest in the subject of education, are respectfully invited to attend the meeting, and become members of the association, in whatever part of the country they may reside.¹

From the beginning the leaders of the American Institute of Instruction were prominent college professors and so-called "educational statesmen." This fact gave rise to much dissatisfaction among the public-school teachers with the result that those in Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, and Rhode Island in 1845 formed independent state education associations. The membership in these early associations was restricted to persons actively engaged in teaching and the programs were planned in the interests of such teachers.

PRESENT STATUS OF TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Today only those teachers who are employed in isolated rural districts are deprived of the privileges of frequent association with other professional workers. Even these teachers find stimulation and assistance from membership in professional organizations. The publications of the National Education Association, the Association for Childhood Education, the National Council of English Teachers, and of other associations in which the teacher may hold membership, bring current information of professional importance, and the contributions of leading workers in the fields which the publications serve.

It is essential that the teacher have a clear conception of his relations with teacher organizations. In almost every school system of size many teacher organizations will be found. Some of these may play an important part in determining the welfare and

¹ *Barnard's American Journal of Education*, II (1856), 24.

the professional status of the teacher; others may exercise little influence on the activities or the standing of a particular individual. Most of these organizations have voluntary membership, although some resort to considerable pressure in securing their roster of members.

As an individual, the teacher in the past has not been very largely effective in contributing to the formulation of the provisions which govern his own activities and determine his own professional status. Even as a group, teachers have not had much authority and have not often participated in the legal definition of their duties and responsibilities. Authority over schools, as has been pointed out earlier, belongs to the social order and its chosen representatives. The opinions and resolutions of organized groups of teachers, however, have been of some influence even in administrative matters. They have perhaps been most influential in determining legislation pertaining to professional matters.

The means by which organizations of teachers achieve their purposes are generally in conformity with the point of view set forth in a recent bulletin of the National Education Association; namely, that teachers' organizations in the field of education should have the following aims:

Continuous study and research with respect to the process of education, the conditions under which the process is carried on, the results achieved, and the means of its improvement; promotion of all movements which will give stability and progressive character to educational undertakings; provision which will insure the continued professional growth of those engaged in the service of education; and the maintenance of such relations with the public as will secure economic welfare, social security, and civil liberties for those who serve the public in carrying on education.¹

Apparently, it would be neither expedient nor practical for every teacher to be affiliated with all the existing organizations to

¹ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 69. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

which he may be invited to belong. It should be the responsibility of every teacher, however, to know what organizations exist in which his membership would be beneficial to the educational profession and to himself. Even where it is not practical for a teacher to be a member of certain local, state, or national organizations it is well for him to know what the activities and services of these organizations are.

For a better understanding of his relationship to teachers' organizations it is essential that the individual teacher know the purposes of the various types of organizations and the activities which they attempt to carry on in the interests of the profession and the system of public education. Without a clear understanding of these relations the teacher will find membership in teachers' organizations disappointing, and his contributions to the advancement of the purposes of the organizations will be insignificant.

STATE ORGANIZATIONS

By 1857, the date at which the National Teachers' Association (now National Education Association of the United States) was formed, teachers' organizations had been established in 17 states.¹

At first the memberships of the state associations were small and their purposes were imperfectly conceived. Sufficient attention was not given to particular groups of school employees in the associations to make a strong appeal to large numbers of the various groups of teachers and administrative officers in the public schools.

Alexander points out that a beginning in specialization was made before 1870 in the state associations of Indiana, Maryland, and Wisconsin where sections for county superintendents were

¹ A. B. Crawford, *A Critical Analysis of the Present Status and Significant Trends of State Education Associations of the United States*, p. 12. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. IV. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1932.

provided; and in Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio where sections were provided for college teachers. During the decade from 1870 to 1880, considerable differentiation was provided in the annual programs. Sections were provided for superintendents and principals in at least 8 states; for county superintendents, in 2 states; for college teachers, in 3 states; for high-school teachers, in 7 states; for grammar-grade teachers, in 4 states; and for primary teachers in at least 3 states.¹

After 1880 the tendency toward specialization in the programs and activities of the state associations became more pronounced, although the associations have generally continued to be primarily teacher organizations.

Growth in membership

The total membership of all state teachers' associations at present is approximately 700,000 or about three and one-half times the membership of the National Education Association. The growth in membership has been very rapid since the first decade of the present century. Only 15 per cent of the teachers in the United States were reported as holding membership in state education associations in 1907. In 1940, approximately 85 per cent were members.²

In numerous cities 100 per cent of the teachers are members of the state association and in certain states the maximum possible membership has been reached. However, when one considers the compulsory method by which the 100 per cent membership is attained in certain school systems, grave doubt may be raised as to whether or not the membership of a state teachers' association is an accurate index of its professional effectiveness.

¹ Carter Alexander, *Some Present Aspects of the Work of Teachers' Voluntary Associations in the United States*, pp. 20-21. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1910.

² *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, *op. cit.*, p. 69.

Organization and administration

In the earlier stages of development of the state organizations the officers of the association were elected and business was transacted by members present at the annual convention. Such functions are now performed by delegate bodies. Most state associations have boards of directors and some of them have executive committees within these boards. All state teachers' associations perform numerous and important functions through standing or special committees. Each association usually has a president, vice-presidents, treasurer, and a permanent secretary. The permanent secretary is sometimes referred to as the "executive secretary." He assumes the major responsibilities in conducting the plans, business, and programs of the association. The presidency is frequently considered an honorary position.

A recent trend in state teachers' associations is for teachers rather than administrators to hold offices or other positions on committees or boards. The association is thus becoming more definitely a teachers' association.

Aims

The aims of state teachers' associations are revealed through their literature. Twin phrases in the literature signify that the aims are "to promote the interests of education" and "to advance the interests of the profession."

The constitution of a typical state teachers' association reveals the aims specifically. The preamble of the constitution generally suggests that the aims are (1) to promote the interests of education, (2) to encourage the professional development of teachers, (3) to protect the interests of the school child, and (4) to foster the democratic American way of life.

An analysis of the purposes of state teachers' associations, as defined by their constitutions, revealed the following aims:

Forty-six . . . [were] concerned with the promotion of the interests of education; twenty-seven concerned with the elevation of the teaching profession; eighteen concerned with the promotion of the interests

of teachers; and eight naming as an objective of organization the need for securing co-operation within the profession.¹

Activities and services

The annual convention, whether it be held as a state meeting or in divisional meetings, is the best known of the numerous activities of the state teachers' associations. It is referred to as the "teachers' mecca" or "pedagogical festival."² Although the value of the convention to the teacher is determined largely by the program provided, the teacher's attitude and efforts also determine the value. Inspirational, informational, and socializing benefits are frequently claimed for the conventions.

The publications of state teachers' associations — particularly the journals — frequently contain information of specific importance to all teachers within the state. Sometimes they contain reports and educational news of interest to teachers in other states. Generally, the journal serves as a house organ of the association.

Hevenor³ found that 40 of the 48 state associations published journals or magazines. An analysis of the issues for January, 1933, revealed 856 articles distributed among the following subject areas: association news and reports, educational progress, finance, classroom service, educational psychology, administration, special education, teacher welfare, books and library service, rural education, legislation, and miscellaneous items. The journals ranged in size from 20 to 96 pages, the median being 36.⁴

As previously mentioned, an important function of state teachers' associations, as well as of associations organized on a local or

¹ John Granrud, *The Organization and Objectives of State Teachers' Associations*, pp. 7-8. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 234. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

² Arthur L. Marsh, *The Organized Teachers*, p. 19. National Association of Secretaries of State Educational Associations, 1936.

³ Irene Hevenor, "Activities of State Education Associations," p. 73. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1935.

⁴ Hevenor, *ibid.*, p. 28.

national scale, is to influence legislators to introduce and pass measures favorable to education and especially to teachers.

The legislative plans of the 40 state associations were studied by Hevenor¹ and classified as follows: (1) Recommended legislation, 31; (2) Prepared legislation, 15; (3) Indorsed legislation, 14; and (4) Opposed legislation, 11.

Fact finding, informational service, and field service are more characteristic of some state teachers' associations than of others. The benefits of such activities to the associations and their respective members are obvious.

Some of the state teachers' associations are well aware of the necessity of establishing desirable public relations and have successfully carried on activities which bring teachers and school patrons in closer harmony on state-wide problems.

It is generally conceded that the activities of the associations have resulted in benefits for school children by way of providing better buildings and equipment, improving the curriculum, and raising the level of educational efficiency by numerous other means. The teacher's own status has undeniably been improved as a result of concerted action by members of a state teachers' association in support of increased salaries, better tenure, improved retirement provisions, and better working conditions.

There are other services which are less common but which point to the potentialities of professional organized groups. Hevenor² found that in 1933 seven state teachers' associations operated placement bureaus, six conducted reading circles and professional libraries for loans to members, two operated credit unions, two provided group insurance, and one maintained a rest and recreation resort.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 47.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 58-63.

LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

Development of local teachers' associations

While state educational associations had their beginnings in organizations in which a few teachers in a single school system participated, the local associations soon received impetus from the organization of state associations. Local organizations already in existence when the larger associations were being established gradually became affiliated units of the state associations. State associations are benefited by the local units and, likewise, local units derive benefits from the larger associations. There is very little if any evidence of competition among local and state teachers' professional associations.

Since teachers with common educational problems tend to form associations for professional improvement in almost every city, the number of local associations of teachers in the United States must be very great. Undoubtedly many of these associations are only temporary organizations. Others are known to have had a continued existence for many years. Of the latter type, 213 which were organized between 1870 and 1936 were reported by the Department of Classroom Teachers to be active in 1937. The distribution of these associations according to the decade of organization is shown in Table 33.

TABLE 33. LOCAL TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS ESTABLISHED BETWEEN 1870 AND 1936 WHICH ARE REPORTED STILL ACTIVE *

Date Organization Was Established	Number of Local Associations
1870-1880.....	5
1880-1890.....	2
1890-1900.....	7
1900-1910.....	37
1910-1920.....	84
1920-1930.....	45
1930-1936.....	<u>33</u>
Total.....	213

* Adapted from National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers, *Teacher Local Associations — A Manual for Leaders*, p. 4. (February, 1937.)

Most of the local associations which have enjoyed a long period of life are found in the larger cities. This fact is to be expected, since local associations are generally specialized and deal chiefly with problems not present in the small school system.

If parent-teacher associations were classified as teachers' professional associations, the number of local associations would be greatly increased. Inasmuch as these associations deal with certain educational matters of special concern to teachers, it is probably true that there are fewer local teachers' associations in the smaller cities and rural areas than would be the case if the parent-teacher associations did not exist.

Activities of local organizations

Like the state unit, the local teachers' associations generally attempt to improve the schools and to promote the interests of the teaching profession. In some localities these objectives are sought independently; in others they are sought in collaboration with the larger units. Questions of policy of a state teachers' association are often presented first in the local units for reactions and suggestions for use in guiding the association in courses to be pursued. Local-unit meetings are often concerned with the discussion and consideration of state and national educational problems as they apply to local situations.

Frequently a local organization performs clerical and routine functions in behalf of the larger units with which it is affiliated. For instance, the responsibility of securing membership enrollment and payment of dues is frequently assumed by the local unit.

Professional advancement of teachers is one of the main objectives of the local associations. In some communities these associations are nothing more than well organized faculties which study and discuss problems germane to the teaching profession.

It is not uncommon to have professional magazines circulate among members of a local association or to secure club rates in purchasing professional reading materials. The advantage of

co-operative buying is frequently utilized. The practice is most clearly illustrated by the securing of group insurance to provide health and accident coverage. In some of the larger school systems the local associations also provide for the hospitalization of members requiring hospital services. Credit unions are sometimes organized by local teachers' associations to encourage members in systematic saving and to enable them to secure loans at a moderate interest rate when financial assistance is needed.

Local organizations are generally active in voicing approval or disapproval of administrative policies, particularly those affecting the welfare of the teacher. By such means they have sometimes been persuasive in the adoption of salary schedules, provisions for sick leave, or sabbatical leave.

Differences in local organizations

A great variety of local associations are found in large cities. Some of these are evidently formed in response to clearly conceived purposes; others originate almost spontaneously to meet professional emergencies and have no other purpose than that of providing the means for group action when such action is needed. Some of the organizations restrict membership to teachers in a limited field while others permit and solicit members from all the fields of the teaching profession.

In the school systems of large cities the variety of local associations may be as great as the special areas of instruction in which teachers are required to hold certificates for teaching. English, mathematics, science, social science, foreign languages, industrial arts, music, fine arts, physical education, kindergarten-primary, intermediate-grade, and grammar-grade organizations are but a few of the many teachers' associations that are common to urban school systems.

Wattenberg¹ found more than 160 distinct organizations of teachers in New York City. He concluded that these organiza-

¹ William W. Wattenberg, *On the Educational Front*, p. 41. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936.

tions tend to follow a relatively small number of patterns. The chief activity of one type is the holding of meetings for purposes of entertainment. In another frequent pattern small groups of teachers pursue professional activities. The "paternalistic" type is a group with a large inactive membership upon which leaders confer many economic and cultural benefits. Associations limited to teachers in the elementary school have a membership composed almost entirely of women. "It is typical of such groups that the leader does most of the talking at meetings, and that her efforts to evoke discussion get relatively little response." Another group is characterized as an association "whose chief function is to create political pressure." The distinguishing feature of the so-called "radical group" is the "tendency to come into conflict with educational and political authorities." In general, associations of the latter type are minority groups which display a rather strong "anti-supervisor bias."¹

NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The National Education Association

The largest and probably the most influential professional organization of national scope is the National Education Association. It is a voluntary organization of teachers, school administrators, and others engaged or actively interested in education. The National Education Association undertakes to serve as the over-all organization of the teaching profession.

The association was organized in Philadelphia, August 26, 1857 by a small group of educational leaders "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." The name was changed in 1870 to the "National Educational Association." The association was incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886 under the name, "National Education Association," but its name was sub-

¹ Wattenberg, *ibid.*, pp. 205-06.

sequently changed by certificate on November 6, 1886 to its previous title, "National Educational Association." On June 30, 1906 the association was chartered by a special act of Congress as the "National Education Association of the United States." Numerous changes have been made in the bylaws since the granting of the charter in 1906, but the basic provisions of the charter remain unchanged.¹

After a long period of inadequate support and small membership the association has developed great size and influence. Its unusual growth is attributed to absorption of previously formed associations and the expansion of departmental organizations affiliated with it.

The growth in membership was slow until 1920, but during the four years following that date 100,000 new members were added. The annual increase has been steady with the exception of the depression period when there was an actual decrease in membership. The peak year was reached in 1939 with a total membership of 201,682. It is estimated that today about 21 per cent of the public-school teachers of the United States belong to the National Education Association.²

Effectiveness of such a large membership within a single organization is achieved by subdivision into many departments, each representing a special interest group. In all, there are twenty-three departments within the National Education Association, each of which elects its own officers, holds its own meetings, and produces its own publications.

An important division of the National Education Association is the American Association of School Administrators. This association conducts an annual meeting held in February. It publishes a yearbook, assists in the publication of the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, and helps to maintain the Educational Research Service and the Educational Policies Commission.

¹ *Proceedings of the Seventy-Sixth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association* (1938), pp. 653-75.

² *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, *op. cit.*, p. 69.

Departments of the National Education Association of special concern to teachers are: The Department of Classroom Teachers, the Rural Department, Childhood Education, Music Education, Science Instruction, Social Studies, Special Education, Art Education, and the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.

The Educational Policies Commission was established by the National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. It operates under funds granted in part by the General Education Board. Its main contribution has been publication of highly significant reports.

The effects of the National Education Association upon the teaching profession are many and far-reaching. The annual meetings which bring together the outstanding educators of the country are inspirational to all who attend. Moreover, the resolutions adopted at the meetings are influential in determining the future courses to be pursued by all organized teacher groups.

The services of the National Education Association cannot be easily classified. The association formulates objectives and carries on activities which appear to be most productive in the attainment of these objectives. The objectives of the National Education Association are in general in conformity with the aims of most educators as evidenced by the following platform statements adopted in 1932 and reaffirmed since:

1. Every child, regardless of race, belief, economic status, residence, or physical condition, should have the opportunity for the fullest development of his individual powers through education.
2. In order that every child, no matter what his economic status, shall freely enjoy the right of a free education from nursery school through the university, the educational profession should actively work for the passage of the Child Labor Amendment by states.
3. Teachers of equivalent training and experience doing the same kind of work should receive equal pay regardless of sex. Teachers should not be discriminated against because of race, color, belief, residence, or economic or marital status.
4. Teachers should have the privilege of presenting all points of

view, including their own, on controversial issues without danger of reprisal by the school administration or by pressure groups in the community.

5. Teachers in every department of education shall have the right to organize within their own groups in order to give them a voice in school policies and management.

6. The educational program today needs the active support of all citizens and organized community agencies. Educators should make a practice of keeping the aims, practices and achievements of the schools constantly before the public.

7. Upon the character, preparation, selection, placement, and freedom of the teacher depends in a large measure the ultimate success of education. It is important that the preparation of teachers should be adequate, rich in professional and subject-matter content, and adapted to the demands of actual service.

8. There should be legislation to protect teachers from discharge for political, religious, personal, or other unjust reason, but the laws should not prevent the dismissal of teachers for incompetence, immorality, or unprofessional conduct. Every state should adopt a sound plan for the retirement of aged disabled teachers.

9. Upon the states fall the major responsibilities of organizing a system of schools, preparing the teachers, providing adequate financial support, and maintaining the necessary educational standards.

10. Funds should be provided by the federal government to assist the states in making an adequate education available to every child and adult.¹

It may be noted from the association's platform statements that, although the welfare of the child is given primary consideration, the status of the teacher is also stressed. There is undoubtedly a conviction among members of the association that children are assured an adequate education only when the status of the teacher has become professionalized.

Teachers who are members of the National Education Association derive many benefits through the receipt of educational reading materials, particularly reports of committees and scientific investigations. The Research Bulletin which is published five

¹ *Booklet of Information*, 1934-35, pp. 12-13. Washington: National Education Association.

times each year contains much information of specific concern to the teacher. The five-dollar membership fee of the National Education Association entitles one to receive for a year the Research Bulletin, the Journal of the National Education Association, an annual volume of addresses and proceedings, and certain other publications of the association. The Research Bulletin may be received also by nonmembers through a special subscription of one dollar per year. Single copies may also be procured at nominal cost.

That the Research Bulletin deals with specific problems of the teacher is evidenced by the titles of the issues published in 1939 and 1940.

The Rural Teacher's Economic Status (January, 1939).

Salaries of School Employees (March, 1939).

Tax Legislation Affecting State School Revenue, 1934-1938 (May, 1939).

The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load (November, 1939).

City Teachers: Their Preparation, Salaries, and Experiences (January, 1940).

The Status of the Teaching Profession (March, 1940).

Analysis of Local Provisions for Teacher Retirement (May, 1940).

Progress in Rural Education (September, 1940).

What People Think About Youth and Education (November, 1940).

American Federation of Teachers

The American Federation of Teachers is generally considered the youngest of the national organizations of teachers. It was organized April 15, 1916 and within less than one month became affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. The purpose of this affiliation was declared to be the gaining of allies in the fight to overcome what were regarded as social, economic, and political injustices with which the profession of education is compelled to contend.

The Federation is said to have two main objectives:

- (1) It purposes to consolidate the teachers of the country into a strong group which would be able to protect its own interests.
- (2) It aims to raise the standard of the teaching class by a direct attack on

the conditions which, according to the belief of the Federation, prevent teaching from enjoying the status of a profession. These conditions are: lack of academic freedom and of civil liberty, the absence of the opportunity for self-determination of policies and for democratic control.¹

The objectives of the Federation are described further in Article II of the constitution which was adopted in 1933.

The objectives of this organization shall be:

1. To bring associations of teachers into relations of mutual assistance and co-operation.
2. To obtain for them all the rights to which they are entitled.
3. To raise the standard of the teaching profession by securing the conditions essential to the best professional service.
4. To promote such a democratization of the schools as will enable them better to equip their pupils to take their places in the industrial, social, and political life of the community.

Membership of the American Federation of Teachers is small compared with that of the National Education Association. When the Federation was first organized in 1916 the combined membership of its eight chartered locals was only 2,800. The increase in membership was rapid during the next four years. By March, 1920, 140 locals had a total membership of over 12,000. A decline in growth of membership was apparent for the years 1921-1927, but since 1927 there has been a renewed growth which is attributed to the renewal of memberships canceled during the depression. The present membership is said to be over 30,000.

The failure of the Federation to win a larger membership is perhaps due to the fact that it is organized on the union basis, thereby causing suspicion among teachers and others that it will employ tactics similar to those employed by labor to attain its objectives. The Federation, however, disclaims any intention to use such tactics and points out that no local has ever resorted to

¹ A. W. Robinson, "A Critical Evaluation of the American Federation of Teachers," p. 58. Chicago: American Federation of Teachers (Smith College thesis), 1934.

the strike as a means of attaining its end. Indeed its constitution is explicit in stating that its members will not strike.

Teachers who ally themselves with the American Federation of Teachers may arouse the disapproval of their boards of education. Such disapproval was illustrated in Seattle where a group of high-school teachers allied itself with the local labor union, under the name of the American Federation of Teachers for the purpose of securing support in compelling a salary raise. For reasons of its own, the board did not accede to the increase in salary sought by the teacher group, and at the same time advanced the opinion that it was illogical for a public-school teacher to place himself under any authority other than that of the regularly constituted administrative body. The board forced the issue by adopting a resolution to insert in the annual contract the following clause:

I hereby declare that I am not a member of the American Federation of Teachers, or any local thereof, and will not become a member during the term of this contract.¹

The labor leaders secured an order of the court restraining the board from carrying out its purpose to insert this clause. The case was carried to the Superior Court where the action of the board was sustained, the court holding that

The adoption and enforcement of the resolution in question is within the powers expressly delegated to the defendant board of directors by the legislature and contravenes neither constitutional nor statutory enactment.²

The American Federation of Teachers publishes the magazine, *The American Teacher*. In addition to news of the Federation's activities, this journal contains numerous brief articles dealing with current problems of education. An examination of recent issues indicates that numerous prominent educators are contributing to the columns of this magazine.

¹ "The Seattle School Case and a Court Decision," *American School Board Journal*, LXXVII (July, 1928), 56.

² *Ibid.*, p. 56.

NON-REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Some organizations for teachers have been formed without reference to any particular political division, geographical region, or school authority. These organizations have been designed as means of increasing interest in the study and teaching of particular subjects or divisions of the curriculum or to promote the development of special phases of public education. Typical associations of the non-regional type are the American Association of Teachers of French, the American Home Economics Association, the American Vocational Association, the American Child Health Association, and the Progressive Education Association. Two examples are sufficient to characterize these non-regional organizations.

The American Vocational Association

The American Vocational Association has a membership of approximately 25,000, consisting chiefly of administrators and teachers engaged in vocational education, such as agriculture, auto-mechanics, home economics, commercial occupations, and various trades. This association was organized in 1906 as the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. The constitution of the organization contained the following statement:

The objects of this society shall be to bring to public attention the importance of industrial education as a factor in the industrial development of the United States; to provide opportunities for the study and discussion of the various phases of the problem; to make available the results of experience in the field of industrial education, both in this country and abroad; and to promote the establishment of institutions of industrial training.

The society played an important role in securing the enactment of the National Education Law of 1917, better known as the Smith-Hughes Act. With the passage of this act the following resolution was adopted by the society:

Whereas, the Smith-Hughes Bill providing federal aid for vocational education in agriculture, trade, home economics, and industrial subjects has now become a law, and

Whereas, the work of this society is no longer that of promotion, but rather that of the development of industrial education including agriculture and home economics under the general head of vocational education, therefore be it

Resolved, that it is the sense of this meeting that the name of this society which is now the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, be changed to the more inclusive title of the National Society for Vocational Education.

The organization continued under the changed title until 1926 when it was renamed the American Vocational Association. The revised constitution gives the following as the objectives of the association:

(a) To assume and maintain active national leadership in the promotion of vocational education.

(b) To render service to state or local communities in stabilizing and promoting vocational education.

(c) To provide a national open forum for the discussion of all questions involved in vocational education.

(d) To unite all the vocational education interests of the country through membership representative of the entire country.¹

Obviously, the two changes in the name of the association resulted in no great change in purposes as the activities of the organization have continued to be strongly promotional and political in protecting and advancing the interests of vocational education and the personnel therein engaged. The association has proved to be extraordinarily effective in securing federal support for vocational education and in preventing legislation intended to modify the operation of the Smith-Hughes Act.

In acquainting teachers generally with this non-regional association the purpose is not to recommend either its methods or the close tie-up with political forces which the members of the Ameri-

¹ *American Vocational Association News Bulletin*, Vol. I, No. IV (November, 1926), 16-17.

can Vocational Association have been able to make in locality, state, and nation. Neither is it the intention to recommend that other organizations seek to develop the strong group consciousness which appears to characterize the members of the organization. The important lesson for teachers with special educational interests to learn from the history of the American Vocational Association is the advantage to be secured through the formulation of common purposes and the consistent adherence to and pursuit of these purposes.

The Progressive Education Association

Not all teachers' associations are established for the primary purpose of improving the economic or social status of the teacher. The Progressive Education Association is a professional association particularly concerned with the improvement of educational methods.

Contrary to a rather prevalent opinion, progressive education is not new. It had its beginning with the efforts of such historically famous men as Socrates, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel. Impetus was given to the movement in the last century by Colonel Francis W. Parker and John Dewey.

Reaction against the regimentation of the public school system and the wide acceptance of the philosophy set forth in the writings of John Dewey motivated many parents and teachers to establish privately supported schools which would provide greater educational freedom for children.

It was not until the winter of 1918-1919 that teachers and laymen had become interested enough in progressive education, to group themselves together for the purpose of carrying on concerted activities; these activities were designed to unite those engaged in experimental work, and to enlist the interest of the lay public, and thus to direct public opinion and to secure support for the proposed progressive type of education. At that date the newly established organization was named the Progressive Education Association.

The following principles were originally set forth by the Association and are still stressed: (1) Freedom should be developed naturally. (2) The motive of all work should be interest. (3) The teacher should be a guide, not a taskmaster. (4) Pupil development should be studied scientifically. (5) Greatest attention should be given to all that affects the child's physical development. (6) There should be greater co-operation between school and home to meet the needs of child life. (7) The Progressive School should be a leader in educational movements.

Solicitation for membership has never been so characteristic of the Progressive Education Association as of most other educational organizations. At first the membership consisted mainly of parents and teachers of certain private institutions interested in conducting education in accordance with progressive principles. Even now actual membership hardly exceeds 10,000. There are numerous teachers who attempt to apply the principles of progressive education in their teaching even though they are not members of the association.

Whereas the principal emphasis of the Progressive Education Association has been on problems of child development, a more recent trend within the organization is consideration of socioeconomic problems and their relation to education.

A recent innovation of the association is the summer workshops for teachers, the first of which was established in the summer of 1936 by Ralph W. Tyler at Ohio State University. For several years prior to 1936 two commissions of the association — the Commission on the Relation of School and College and the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum — had been working with secondary-school teachers, giving assistance in the revision and evaluation of curriculums and in the development of guidance programs. Much of this work was done during the school year through conferences with teachers in the evenings and on week-ends. These periods that could thus be secured were too short to accomplish the work that had to be done. Therefore, in the summer of 1936 the two commissions jointly conducted the

six-weeks' workshop at which teachers in science and mathematics from sixteen schools divided their time between study of the curriculum and work in evaluation. The direct access to research findings and the consultation of specialists proved so helpful that it was decided to enlarge the opportunities the following summer. In 1937 a workshop was held at Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, New York, at which 126 teachers and other school workers from educational institutions all over the United States were in attendance. During the summer of 1941, 140 workshops were held, providing for teachers and administrators belonging to institutions at elementary, secondary, and college levels.

The essential features of a workshop must be stated in terms of the qualifications of the participants and the staff.

Experience indicates that there are some teachers and other educational workers who can benefit particularly from the workshop procedure. In general these are individuals who are already committed to a philosophy involving the continuous reconstruction of educational materials and methods, and have identified certain aspects of their work needing development or improvement. The workshop is not intended for individuals who are just becoming oriented in teaching, but rather for experienced teachers who sense the need for studying some of their problems and who have some tentative plans for their work. The workshop program contributes most significantly to the teacher who comes with a specific interest or problem for study and who desires to devote his entire time during the workshop period to the intensive investigation of this interest or problem.

Because of the primary purposes of the workshops, a staff member is selected with certain definite qualifications in mind. He is competent in his own field and is familiar with methods by which major problems in his field may be attacked. He does not attempt to solve the problems of participants, but instead helps them to seek intelligent solutions of their own. The workshop staff member is chosen for his effectiveness in conference tech-

niques — i.e., in raising issues, in stimulating discussion, in contributing ideas at appropriate points in the progress of group thinking, and in summarizing conclusions so as to indicate what the next steps should be. He is usually able to see several kinds of possible solutions to educational problems and encourages experimentation that will provide an opportunity for determination of the values in each kind of solution.

The Progressive Education Association has also carried on its program by committees and commissions. The five committees which were active by 1928 dealt with (1) Progressive Education in Rural Schools; (2) Community School Relations; (3) Experimental Schools; (4) Child Development and the Pre-School and Elementary-School Curriculum; and (5) International Relations.

A Commission on Educational Freedom was appointed in 1935 for the purpose of giving vigorous protection to the educational freedom of teachers and students and a Commission on Intercultural Education was appointed in 1936 to perpetuate the work formerly done by the Service Bureau for Education in Human Relations. Three other commissions were organized to give primary concern to phases of secondary education. They are known as the Commission on the Relation of School and College; the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum; and the Commission on Human Relations.

The official journal of the Progressive Education Association which has been published since 1924 is entitled *Progressive Education*. This magazine is intended (1) to interest the lay reader as well as the teacher, (2) to serve in uniting members in a more regular exchange of educational thinking, and (3) to stimulate changes in school practices throughout the country.¹

¹ *Progressive Education Advances*. (Report on a Program to Educate American Youth for Present-day Living.) A Publication of the Progressive Education Association, p. 7. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938.

FUTURE OF TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

The United States Commissioner of Education has written:

If teachers are ever to achieve the goals for which they are working, they must learn the art of organized cooperation, and if they are ever to secure a fully organized profession a plan of simplified enlistment facilitating the enrolment of every teacher quickly and easily will be one of the factors in its achievement. There are approximately one million teachers in this nation. At the present time only a trifle more than one-fifth are members of the national organization. What an irresistible force for the welfare of the nation this great army of one million picked people might exert if they were enroled, one hundred per cent in vigorous local, state and national associations.¹

That teachers are well aware of their organized power is revealed by the steadily increased membership in professional organizations. The trend suggests that in the future practically every teacher will belong to some kind of professional organization. Whether the increased membership will be in local, state, or national associations depends in part upon the form which future educational organization takes on. Where local autonomy prevails it is to be expected that local teachers' associations will thrive. As the state assumes a more active role in educational administration the state teachers' association will serve a very useful purpose. It may be noted too that the membership growth of national organizations has been contemporaneous with the federal interest and participation in education. Even if the educational system of the United States should become highly nationalized there still would be a need for state and local associations as affiliates of the national organizations in order to facilitate administration.

The influence of teachers' professional organizations is not determined by membership alone. The objectives of the associations and the techniques used in attaining them are also determi-

¹ J. W. Studebaker, "If Teachers Were Bricklayers," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXV (May, 1936), 161.

nants. If the public is to be favorably influenced by teachers' professional organizations, people must be convinced that the objectives of the associations are the welfare of education and the public rather than the satisfaction of the selfish desire of teachers to better their own status. On the other hand, it may be well for the public to realize that the professional elevation of the teacher results in the improvement of educational efficiency. There can be little doubt that in an attempt to attain their objectives teachers' organizations can and will play an increasingly important part in American education.

Teachers' organizations in the past have accomplished many excellent results for public education and for the improvement of the profession. On the contrary they have wasted much effort in internecine strife and in so doing have not infrequently incurred unfavorable public opinion. The public generally has the impression that the teaching profession is over-organized.

Perhaps, the solution to the problem of excessive teacher organization will consist in the future in the creation of an over-all organization of organizations for purposes of effective group action on matters pertaining to educational administration and to the general welfare of the teaching profession. Membership in some special organization would then be sought by the individual for the purpose of professional stimulation through group association and co-operation with other teachers of similar interests in the study of common problems.

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ers as a means of encouraging them to study and to participate in the solution of educational problems.

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Davidson, P. E., and Anderson, H. D. "Conflicting Interests in Teachers' Associations," *School and Society*, XLIV (December 5, 1936), 721-26.

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Dewey, John. "Democracy and Educational Administration," *School and Society*, XLV (April 3, 1937), 457-62.

The author urges co-operative inquiry and experimentation among teachers in the interests of democratic administration in the schools.

Givens, Willard E. "A United Profession," *School and Society*, XLIX (March 4, 1939), 257-60.

Maintains that to have a united profession devoted unselfishly to promoting public education throughout the nation every superintendent must organize his system so that each teacher is encouraged to participate and give his best to the cause.

Gosling, Thomas W. "Teacher Organizations from the Viewpoint of a Layman," *School and Society*, XLVII (April 23, 1938), 540-42.

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The platform presented is an outgrowth of past resolutions adopted by the National Education Association.

PART III

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF
VITAL CONCERN TO THE TEACHER

PREPARATION FOR TEACHING

ANYONE who enters the teaching profession must assume some responsibility for his own preparation for admission to this profession. He should understand the reasons why society has gradually evolved courses and institutions especially devoted to the preparation of individuals for teaching. He should gain through a study of teacher-preparation programs an idea of the advancing requirements which have been imposed on candidates for teaching positions in recent years. He should cultivate an understanding of the reasons why certain traits are demanded of teachers. In short, the teacher should be ready to take an important part in the fitting of himself into the total administrative organization that society has set up in its efforts to insure competent conduct of public schools. Unless the teacher is prepared to take responsibility for his own success he will never be fully qualified to guide others in the processes of individual adaptation to the demands of life.

Some consideration of the long process by which training for teachers has been developed will lay the foundation for personal understanding of one's part in the upbuilding of the teaching profession.

THE EVOLUTION OF TEACHER PREPARATION

Between the Colonial Period and 1840 there was little specific preparation for teaching in the public schools of the United States. The teachers rendering service in common schools were a motley group of itinerate adventurers, ne'er-do-wells, and

farmers who sought to earn a little on the side when farm duties were light. The qualifications required of teachers were so meager that almost anyone who had the courage to face an unassorted group of learners ranging from five to twenty-one years of age could secure a position to teach. The examinations for certificates were conducted by school trustees and were little more than mere farces. A few perfunctory questions were all that were asked. If the candidate could claim attendance at some academy or college, usually the formality of an examination was waived. The tests of success usually came after employment and were largely physical. If the teacher could endure rigorous conditions and was able to subdue the older scholars, many of whom came to school not to learn but to make trouble for the teacher, he might last out a term of school and even be invited for another term. It was not unusual for a school to have several different teachers in a single term. Since the pay was small and the conditions hard, the teacher did not hesitate to take his few belongings and move on to another district. Jobs were usually plentiful for the teacher who was not too particular about his pay or the conditions to which he must accommodate himself.

When comparison is made between these pioneer teachers and those of today one may wonder why communities tolerated such poorly qualified people for the important services of teaching. The fact is that the standards of education of the pioneer were low. The tools of literacy were about all that the school was expected to supply. The art of living under pioneer conditions was not acquired through formal education but through experience. A little reading, writing, and arithmetic, the so-called "3 R's," were the school's contribution to the making of a citizen. The pioneer had no need for more. Hence, the schools supplied a very meager education as judged by the standards of today. Even in urban communities there were few demands for education beyond the rudiments.

Recognition of the need for teacher training

About a century ago people who were interested in the improvement of schools began to see the importance of improving the qualifications of teachers. The agitation for special institutions for the training of teachers began in New England. The creation of agencies for supervision other than the lay school committees was advocated and legislatures in many of the states enacted laws pertaining to the improvement of teachers.

Rise of normal schools

The first state to establish a school for the specific purpose of training teachers was Massachusetts, in 1839. The institution was opened at Lexington, and was designated the Lexington Normal School. A one-year program of instruction was provided, including a review of the common branches; instruction in advanced subjects such as algebra, geometry, navigation, surveying, bookkeeping, general history, mental philosophy, natural philosophy, and astronomy; instruction and training of a professional character in the principles of piety and morality, common to all sects of Christians; the science and art of teaching the subjects previously specified; school discipline; and supervised practice in a model school which was an integral part of the normal school.¹

Between the establishment of the Lexington Normal School and the outbreak of the Civil War twelve such institutions were established in eight different states. The state of Massachusetts led with four normal schools.²

In an address delivered at Cleveland in the summer of 1870 before the National Teachers Association, S. H. White estimated that there were 200,000 teachers in the United States. For the

¹ Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift, *The First State Normal School in America: The Journals of Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift*, pp. 261-62. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1926.

² Walter Agnew, *The Administration of Professional Schools for Teachers*, p. 31. Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1924.

same year the total number of students registered in the state normal schools of the United States was 5,884. White also estimated that 40 per cent of the teachers that year were new to the work, that is, were teaching without experience. He further estimated that in case all the students in the normal schools should become teachers, 97 per cent of the inexperienced teachers of the country would be without any instruction from state normal schools. White estimated that only about 40 per cent of the teachers of the country taught more than one year. Until teaching as a calling became more permanent and the remuneration became better, teacher preparation in his opinion was not likely to improve.¹

By 1885 the normal-school movement was well established. In that year 117 public normal schools in thirty-four states and 36 private normal schools distributed through eighteen states were reported in operation. The enrollment in the public normal schools had reached a total of 23,000 of which 6,894 were males and 16,106 were females, and the enrollment in the private normal schools had reached a total of 3,886 of which 2,102 were males and 1,784 were females.²

The type of student seeking preparation for teaching in the normal school was described by W. W. Parsons, President of the Indiana State Normal School in 1890 as follows:

The average age of students at the time of entering is a little more than twenty years. About twenty-two per cent of the number are graduates of high schools and academies that maintain a three- or a four-years course beyond the work of the town and city grade schools. A very few are college graduates. Ten per cent more have had from one to two years in the high school. From sixty to sixty-five per cent of the entire number have only such scholastic attainments as are given by the country district school or the town or city graded school, with some enlargement and deepening of this in most cases by private

¹ *Addresses and Journal of Proceedings of the National Educational Association* (1871), pp. 29-32.

² Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1885-86, pp. 320-21. Washington: Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, 1887.

study. Perhaps one-half of the students in attendance at any time are teachers of more or less experience. Many have taught several years. As a class they are plain, earnest, studious people, and are, in the main, self-supporting. They have habits of industry, attention and perseverance, and they know the value of time and opportunity. These are the people whom the normal school is to prepare to be teachers. It must be clear that so long as the normal school is obliged to admit as its students persons having only meager attainments, its courses of study must be adapted to the needs of this class.¹

The curriculum developed for such students was characterized by the Committee on Normal Education of the National Council of Education in the following statement:

After more than fifty years of trial, the course of study in the State normal schools is still, in most cases, based upon that of the common school, and the applicant who is qualified to enter a high school is admitted without conditions. This holds true in the States in which normal schools have been established longest. The requirement of completion of a high-school course as condition for admission, is evidently considered neither wise nor practicable. In most cases a preparatory course would be of great advantage.²

The first step in the lengthening of the normal-school curriculum was the adoption of a standard of admission which required graduation from high school. Only 14 per cent of the normal schools met this standard in 1895. The percentage had increased to 22 in 1905.³ In a study of the normal schools of the United States published in 1916 by the Bureau of Education it is reported that the normal schools were still receiving many students with less than high-school preparation and were therefore obliged to conduct courses of high-school grade rather than of truly normal-school grade. This report gave the following warning:

¹ *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association* (1890), p. 718.

² *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association* (1892), p. 781.

³ W. C. Ruediger, "Recent Tendencies in the Normal Schools of the United States," *Educational Review*, XXXIII (March, 1907), 281-82.

Unless the state places a premium, however, on high-school graduates taking advanced normal courses, by granting them superior teachers' certificates, the number of such students in normal schools may not increase rapidly.¹

The report held that if the normal schools had to spend a portion of their funds and energy in giving general high-school instruction, to that extent these institutions were handicapped in their efforts to give special professional training for teachers.²

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in a provisional report on Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools in 1917 made the following proposal:

No curriculum should require less than two years of specific preparation, and every effort should be made so to enhance the sanctions and rewards accruing to efficient public-school service upon every level that three-year and four-year curricula will soon become the rule.³

Since 1917 a great development has taken place in teacher-preparing institutions. As they have evolved from normal schools offering one- and two-year courses and admitting students from the eighth grade to collegiate status, curriculum offerings have been expanded, content of courses modified, faculties improved, and facilities developed. In many institutions degrees are now conferred for four years of approved work, and teachers are prepared for high-school and elementary-school positions in city systems as well as for work in rural schools. There still remain, it is true, many two-year and three-year curriculums but in general the trend is toward four-year curriculums, and almost universally admission requirements have been raised to the point where only high-school graduates are admitted.

¹ Charles Hubbard Judd and Samuel Chester Parker, *Problems Involved in Standardizing State Normal Schools*, p. 64. U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 12, 1916.

² Judd and Parker, *ibid.*, p. 59.

³ Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, Sec. 5, 1917.

Chairs of pedagogy in colleges and universities

The teachers of seventy-five years ago in academies and public high schools required more education than those who served at that time in the elementary schools. While many of the secondary-school teachers were products of the academies, many also had attended colleges or universities. The latter institutions were beginning to feel the pressure of giving specific attention to the preparation of teachers. Some had established "review courses" intended to provide a systematic and somewhat critical survey of the elementary branches as was provided in the normal schools of the time.¹ In other institutions normal-school departments were incorporated within the college or university program for the purpose of serving the needs of those students who desired to go into teaching. These departments were essentially normal schools within the college or university² and were so regarded by the faculties whose members considered pedagogy as outside the pale of academic respectability.³ A few institutions of higher learning offered courses in didactics, presenting in lecture or in textbook the principles of school management and the best known theories of education. These courses were taught by professors who were regular members of their faculties.

Of all the efforts to serve prospective teachers the last mentioned plan was regarded with the greatest favor by faculty members. Some urged that chairs of "pedagogy" or the "science and art of education" be established as had been done in the universities of St. Andrews and Edinburgh, Scotland, and in some of the universities of Germany. The first permanent chair of the kind to be established in the United States is believed to be that in the University of Iowa in 1873. This chair was filled by the

¹ Richard G. Boone, *Education in the United States*, pp. 142-43. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1915.

² Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-1890, p. 1020.

³ *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association* (1892), pp. 772-80.

professor who gave courses also in general philosophy. Similar chairs were established by the University of Michigan in 1879, the University of Wisconsin in 1881, the University of North Carolina and Johns Hopkins University in 1884, Indiana and Cornell Universities in 1886, and New York University in 1887.¹

In an address before the Department of Higher Education of the National Educational Association² in July, 1890, Richard G. Boone, Professor of Pedagogy, Indiana University, stressed the importance of chairs of pedagogy in colleges and universities for the preparation of teachers for secondary schools. He maintained that a chair of pedagogy or some department, school, or curriculum was necessary to provide a serious and long-continued study of educational questions, so that those who go down into the secondary schools and do the work of preparing students for the colleges shall have an intelligent conception of the larger aspects of education.

Boone thought that the chair of pedagogy had a more important function than the mere training of teachers for teaching. He held that the instruction offered by a professor of pedagogy was quite as much a part of a liberal, general education of young men and women as a large percentage of the courses in mathematics, history, biology, and various other departments. He expressed the opinion that in no subject more than in the history of education could a student obtain discipline of mind, larger knowledge of himself, better conception of the world, and more culture.

Levi Seeley, Professor of Pedagogics, Lake Forest College, in a discussion of Boone's address agreed that chairs of pedagogy were the ultimate end to be sought, but he thought that the great majority of the colleges could not afford the expense of a separate chair of pedagogy. Even if they could, sentiment in favor of such a chair, although increasing, was not yet sufficient to secure

¹ Boone, *op. cit.*, pp. 143-47.

² *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association* (1890), pp. 672-73.

favorable action on the part of most college boards of trustees. He urged that there be organized in each college at least two courses in pedagogics — one in the history of education and one in didactics. These he would have given in the senior year for the following reasons: (1) the work should be professional in character and should therefore come when the discipline of the college curriculum has produced considerable maturity, and (2) the work should be provided as close as possible to the time when many of the students would enter upon their life work. He believed that the work in pedagogics should be required of all students. But who would teach pedagogics where there were no chairs of pedagogy? He suggested the professor of the widest and most successful experience on the faculty, who had the greatest liking for this subject. If no one had had any training in the subject, then someone should be designated who could prepare himself easily for the work with profit to himself and to his class. In Seeley's opinion, every college faculty could find some man of wide experience who could teach a course in didactics. This plan would have the advantage of small expense and would not lead trustees to object to the establishment of such a course.

Seeley also advocated a plan under which professors in all subjects would give each member of his class who intended to teach the opportunity to gain experience. Such a member of a class would be assigned some topic in the course. He would be expected to prepare himself to conduct a class exercise in that topic. The student would teach for half of the hour, once a week, the other half of the hour being used by the professor for correcting defects and offering kindly criticism. This plan, he believed, would be valuable, even if there were professors of pedagogy on the faculty.

The work suggested by Professor Seeley was not intended as a substitute for the chair of pedagogy, but rather as an offering to be provided where there was no chair of pedagogy. He considered the preparation of teachers as one of the most important branches of college work. In fact, he maintained that no student

should be graduated from any college without having received instruction in the history and science of education and the laws of pedagogical discipline and training.¹

Establishment of departments, schools of education, and teachers colleges

Although a considerable number of colleges and universities offered courses for prospective teachers by 1890, only 21 out of 361 had made any pretense at establishing chairs of pedagogy and of these it was stated that many were chairs in name only.² The opposition on the part of academic faculties to such professorships was strong, but pressure was beginning to come from superintendents of schools and high-school principals for teachers better prepared for teaching in the secondary schools than were those who had imbibed merely academic instruction at some institution of higher learning.

One of the first institutions to make a vigorous move in the direction of meeting the demand for the professional training of teachers at the university level was the New York College for the Training of Teachers chartered in 1889. The name of this institution was later simplified to Teachers College. This institution really began in 1880 with the formation of the Kitchen Garden Association, an organization of young women in New York City interested in solving the problem of living on small incomes in a large city. Instruction was provided in sewing, marketing, cooking, and other activities incident to housekeeping. The success of the undertaking led in 1884 to a reorganization under a more inclusive name, the Industrial Education Association. Instruction was now offered in manual arts for boys as well as in household branches of instruction for girls.

Nicholas Murray Butler became the president of this association in 1887. He was a professor of philosophy but had a very special interest in the training of teachers. The association found

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 673-77.

² *Ibid.*, p. 673.

its definite purpose under the leadership of President Butler. It was incorporated in 1889.

Teachers College followed at once its definite purpose to prepare teachers:

Courses were offered in the history and theory of education, supplementary courses in art, manual training, and science were provided, a model school for the observation and practice of teaching was added, and, in general, the work followed the lines of the best existing normal schools.

It soon became apparent, however, that the college must raise and unify its standards. Some of its students were well prepared for the work, others were immature and ill-informed. At first there had been practically no requirement for admission except experience in teaching or earnest desire to teach. . . . In 1893 there was introduced a definite course of one year of academic study for students who needed such instruction. A year later a second year of such study was required of those who had the equivalent of a high-school course, as a preliminary to the professional course of two years. Entrance to either the academic or professional courses was by examination, by certificate, or by a diploma from normal school or college. By the time, therefore, that the College came to its new site on 120th Street, in 1894, it had in operation a four years' course of study, two years of which were academic and consisted of science, history, English, and the manual arts, and two years of professional study in the history, theory, and art of education.¹

In 1897 Columbia moved to a site near that of Teachers College. The time seemed auspicious for a close relationship between the two institutions. Under the new relationship students in either institution were privileged to enroll in certain designated courses in the other and receive credit in their own college. Accordingly a reorganization was effected in 1898 by which the president of Columbia University became ex officio president of Teachers College and a dean of the college acting under the direction of the president of the university became the head of Teachers College. Teachers College continued its independent board of trustees. Student privileges were reciprocally extended

¹ Reprinted from *A History of Columbia University, 1754-1904*, pp. 412-13, by permission of Columbia University Press.

and the number of elective courses notably increased. By this agreement Teachers College attained full standing as the School of Education of Columbia University. Following this affiliation a program of professional education developed which was more advanced than any existing at that time in an institution of higher learning.

Since 1900 a rapid growth has taken place generally in provisions for the preparation of teachers in liberal arts colleges and universities. Today most institutions of higher education have organized either departments or schools of education. It is stated that approximately 40 per cent of the teachers of the United States are prepared in these institutions.¹ While it is true that the work given in colleges and universities is intended primarily for teachers on the secondary level, provisions have been made available in some instances for elementary-school teachers, especially in some of the state universities. The latter institutions and the large private universities very largely furnish the graduate work through which the faculties of the teachers colleges, schools and departments of education in colleges and universities, and the administrators and supervisors of public school systems are trained.

Present status of teacher training in the United States

The most recent information available reveals a total of 760 institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers in the United States. These institutions reported in 1935-36 a total of 193,821 students enrolled in undergraduate professional courses and 18,810 in graduate professional courses. The number of students receiving degrees qualifying for admission to teaching totaled 34,224.² The production of teachers now apparently exceeds the demand.

¹ W. E. Peik, "The Education of Teachers in Teachers Colleges and in Universities and Liberal Arts Colleges: A Comparative Study." *Proceedings of National Education Association* (1934), p. 769.

² "Statistics of Higher Education for 1935-1936," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36*, Vol. II, Chapter IV, pp. 52, 68. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937.

The foregoing historical sketch shows that new personal problems confront the candidate for a teaching position. The educational system of the United States has moved forward in the organization of facilities for the professional preparation of teachers. At the same time all the states have raised their standards of certification of teachers and many local school systems have increased their requirements for initial appointments because of the improvements that have been made in the available supply of teachers.

The pressure placed on appointment officers to provide positions for the surplus of professional recruits made possible through the development of training facilities has stimulated action regarding the continuation in positions of teachers who are inadequately prepared and who have reached the stage of declining efficiency. Retirement provisions for superannuated and semi-disabled teachers are made necessary by the excess of properly prepared individuals who have been unable to secure employment. The condition presents a challenging problem which can be solved only through the co-operation of institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers, persons engaged in educational administration, and the members of the teaching profession. It is at this point that the obligations of the individual become apparent. The teaching profession will rise to a high level only if forces within the profession act in harmony with the historical trend and contribute to the improvement of the country's teaching personnel. It is the duty of every teacher to favor and foster movements which will improve the teaching profession. This duty should be recognized as binding not only for purely selfish reasons but also because the teacher, like every other citizen, has vital interests in the betterment of education.

PRETRAINING SELECTION OF TEACHERS

In any profession it is of the utmost importance that the prospective members be selected with the greatest care. The

statement is especially applicable to an overcrowded profession, such as teaching. Many years ago the medical profession faced a similar situation and took steps to limit the number of recruits. Unless something is done to restrict the number seeking admission to institutions which prepare teachers, the present oversupply will continue to mount. Great waste will also result from the training of unpromising recruits. While it is conceded that the methods of selecting recruits for professional training are as yet not wholly satisfactory the concession should not be used as justification for inactivity on the part of those responsible for pretraining selection.

Individuals who do not possess the qualifications required for teaching should not be admitted to training institutions. It is better to advise such individuals to select some other vocation and if necessary to deny them the privilege of securing professional training rather than to dismiss them for unsatisfactory service after receiving training.

Good personal qualities

It is a well-known fact that certain personal qualities or characteristics are important factors in the determination of teaching success. The teacher who does not possess these qualities may be disliked by pupils and parents while those who possess them are liked and admired. Since the teacher must work and get along with people — pupils, parents, other teachers, supervisors, and administrative officers — personal qualities should be possessed or developed which invite rather than repel co-operative relations. Some teachers possess engaging personalities; that is, they are naturally group workers, while other teachers are characteristically lone workers. The former type is greatly to be preferred to the latter. The one is friendly, kindly, considerate, co-operative, and democratic; the other is very often unfriendly, inconsiderate, and un-co-operative. Persons with the first type of personality are happiest and most efficient when working with human beings. If persons with the second type of personality

are required to deal with people constantly, as in teaching, they tend to become irritable, impatient, and petulant. These characteristics produce friction and discordant personal relations.

While the statement here made is in terms of the selective activities of teacher-preparing institutions it is proper to urge all who are considering entering the teaching profession to guide themselves by the principles which should govern these institutions. Anyone who does not have keen interests in pupils or is unwilling to cultivate such interests should be slow to enter a profession which demands for the highest success qualifications that he does not possess.

Charters and Waples interviewed ninety-seven persons including high-school pupils, school administrators, teachers at different grade levels, parents, professors of education, and staff members of teachers' agencies to ascertain the favorable traits of teachers. From these interviews eighty-three traits were identified and defined.¹ By the process of telescoping, that is, combining traits that were considered as virtually the same, the authors were able to reduce the list to twenty-six traits which were then ranked by twenty-five administrative officers in order of importance for five types of teachers, namely, those in senior high school, junior high school, intermediate grade, primary and kindergarten, and rural school. The list of traits was ranked from 1 to 26. The ten traits considered most essential are: good judgment, self-control, considerateness, enthusiasm, approachability, adaptability, breadth of interest, honesty, co-operation, and refinement.

The value of a list of such traits depends upon the use made of them. Certain individuals who aspire to be teachers may be so lacking in some of these traits that efforts to cultivate or to develop them will be extremely difficult or even hopeless. Other individuals may be so unusually endowed with such traits that further development offers little difficulty. In either case individuals contemplating teaching as a profession and guidance

¹ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, pp. 51-77. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

officers interested in the selection of personnel for teacher-training institutions can use the list of traits to encourage self-evaluation and critical discussion.

Strong interest in teaching

Persons who select teaching should not do so merely as a matter of expediency or because of influence exerted upon them but because of strong interest in the work. Experience as a learner under the direction of teachers should afford a very satisfactory basis for a judgment regarding one's interest in teaching. Such experience should enable the individual considering the selection of teaching as a profession to study the characteristics of good and poor teachers and to form judgments as to his own interest in pupils, in materials of instruction, and in techniques of teaching. The advantages and disadvantages of the profession as revealed through the teachers the individual is privileged to know should also be considered. The individual can then analyze his own qualifications with respect to the demands which teachers must meet and can determine how strong his interests are in the work of the teacher and the kind of life the teacher has to lead.

With a reasonably keen interest in teaching and a fair measure of the other characteristics previously discussed, an individual is justified in seeking admission to a teachers college or to some other higher institution of learning offering preparation for teaching.

General intelligence

The impression has erroneously gained some acceptance that superior general ability or intelligence is not an important characteristic of a successful teacher. This impression has probably resulted from the conclusions of research investigations in which the results of intelligence tests have appeared to possess little predictive value in the selection of successful teachers.¹ Of

¹ *Teacher Personnel*, p. 243. Review of Educational Research, Vol. VII, No. 3. American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1937.

course, some individuals who can make high scores on intelligence tests will not be successful in teaching and others who can make only fair scores on such tests may prove to be very successful teachers. Findings of this sort do not mean that the rating of the prospective teacher on a standard intelligence test is not a matter of some importance in the pre-admission counseling of prospective teachers. A student whose intelligence quotient is as low as 90, regardless of what his other characteristics may be, should not select teaching for a career, (since teaching makes heavy demands on mental ability. The teacher must read extensively. He should therefore be able to assimilate reading material without too great difficulty and should be proficient in organizing ideas and in the use of higher mental processes.

A high-school student considering teaching should be informed that at least average or better than average intelligence is fundamental to success in teaching. The student should also be made to realize that teaching is an intellectual profession requiring extended preparation before entering upon service and continued study thereafter.

In the past, teaching has been used by some as a stepping stone to more lucrative vocations, but it no longer provides ready access to the well-established professions. The individual pausing at the threshold of a professional decision with respect to teaching should be so advised by members of the profession whose counsel may be sought regarding the intellectual demands of teaching. He should not be permitted to enter the unguarded gates of admission to an institution whose chief function is the preparation of teachers if he holds the erroneous belief that general intelligence is not an important characteristic of the successful teacher.

Health and physical fitness

Individuals whose health is poor should not aspire to enter the profession of teaching. The impression has prevailed in the past in some quarters that teaching is an easy job and that it makes

no heavy physical demands on its members. Accordingly, some individuals have been encouraged to regard teaching as a preferred vocation for persons considered unable to stand the physical strain of exacting professional labors. Such notions are not encouraged by the members of the teaching profession. In fact, the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association in a recent yearbook urges the importance of good health as a prerequisite of successful teaching and counsels individuals considering the selection of teaching as a profession to choose some other vocation if serious health handicaps exist.¹

Evidence of good health is already required by state departments of education in approximately 70 per cent of the states before a certificate to teach will be issued. Proof of good health and freedom from defect or disease that might interfere with teaching or might constitute a menace to pupils must be furnished from a legally qualified physician before a certificate to teach will be granted. Such precautions meet with the full approval of the teaching profession and school patrons, although it is recognized that they represent merely a beginning in the establishment of health standards for the profession. The greatest benefits will not result, however, until the same precautions are also applied to candidates for admission to teacher-training institutions.

Good physical and mental health as essential characteristics of the teacher have been too lightly valued. It is generally believed that the state of health of a teacher exerts powerful positive or negative influences on pupils. Harmful results to pupils may ensue from low health standards and from the unfavorable attitudes of a physically handicapped, sickly, or emotionally unstable teacher. Much loss to pupils and the school system may also result from the inability of the physically or mentally incompetent teacher fully to carry out administrative instructions and school policies. His irregularity of attendance and inability to carry a regular load of classroom and extraclassroom duties

¹ *Fit to Teach*, p. 241. *Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association*, 1938.

may result in considerable loss to pupils and to the school as a whole. Hence, it is apparent that the physical condition of the teacher is a matter of serious concern to the public and to the professional group to which the teacher belongs.

A problem to be given full consideration by anyone entering teaching and by those already well advanced in the profession is that of proper recreation, hygiene, and health habits. Many teachers in the past whose preparation was inadequate have found it necessary to work late at night and over week-ends in order to keep up with their pupils. Adequate training prior to employment enables the teacher to carry the load of daily responsibilities without sacrificing the needed rest and recreation after the day's work and at the end of the week. One of the important contributions of institutions which prepare teachers is the cultivation of health habits that will aid teachers in maintaining sound health and mental equilibrium.

Importance of selective admission

It is unfortunate that legislation in most of the states does not provide for selective admission in teacher-training institutions supported by state funds. The fact does not prohibit the administrative officers of these institutions from encouraging secondary schools to counsel with students in the choice of vocations or from setting up pre-admission testing and counseling as a necessary part of admission procedures. In some cases state teachers colleges have set up enrollment quotas with the approval of their boards of trustees and have then used tests and high-school records in selecting the personnel to fill the quotas. All too many state teachers colleges, however, still use increase in enrollment as an argument for expanding budgetary appropriations, and too many private institutions place tuition receipts ahead of quality of service to be rendered.

Despite all the discouraging factors which appear to operate against the improvement of recruits for the teaching profession, progress is being made in pretraining selection. Students con-

sidering teaching as a profession now very generally receive advisement in the high-school period regarding the demands of teaching and the characteristics needed by individuals who think of selecting teaching as a profession. They also receive further counseling if they seek admission to institutions which prepare teachers.

PREPARATION FOR TEACHING

^A Prospective teachers should become fully aware of the kind of preparation that is demanded these days of members of the profession. No one thinks of seeking admission to the medical or legal profession unless he is prepared to take the long course that is demanded by those professions. Candidates for the teaching profession should know the facts that relate to requirements and to the kinds of competition which will be encountered when they seek positions. *

Data on the level of preparation of teachers employed in city school systems of the United States show that in the twenty-year period between 1919 and 1939 the number of teachers with four or more years of professional and general training increased from 21.1 to 59.5 per cent. In the same period the number having three or more years of preparation increased from 29.8 to 72.5 per cent, while those having less than three years decreased from 70.2 to 27.5 per cent. In 1939, the percentage of teachers employed in city systems with less than two years of preparation beyond high school was only 3.5 as compared with 26.7 in 1919.¹

The foregoing figures show the extent of the quantitative enrichment that has taken place in the preparation of teachers in recent years. Analysis of this preparation reveals the directions in which professional improvements have been made.

U Up to this point emphasis has been laid on the selection of

¹ *City Teachers: Their Preparation, Salaries, and Experience*, p. 13. Research Bulletin, Vol. XVIII, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

recruits for the teaching profession. It is highly important that a prospective teacher know something about the particular institution which he selects to prepare him for his professional work. It is quite as important that a recruit choose an institution which will fit him for the kind of position which he hopes to secure as it is for the institution to admit only candidates for the education of whom it has suitable equipment. n

Broad general education

The idea that a broad foundation of general education is a prerequisite to professional training is a contribution of the teachers college and departments of education in liberal arts colleges and universities, which from the beginning have been concerned more with the preparation of teachers for urban school systems than for rural schools. In the Middle West, Far West, and South, where normal schools were developed almost simultaneously with state universities, the field of service of the normal schools was not restricted to the training of teachers for elementary schools as in the normal schools of the older eastern states. The demand for trained teachers in secondary as well as elementary schools was very great. Since the colleges and universities did little until near the close of the nineteenth century to meet the demand, superintendents and principals looked to the normal schools for teachers in the secondary as well as the elementary field. Thus, the normal schools gradually extended their program of training to provide for prospective secondary-school teachers. As a result, the normal schools in the areas designated tended early to become teachers colleges with four-year curriculums designed to prepare secondary-school as well as elementary-school teachers.

The development of a four-year curriculum by the teachers colleges required the enrichment of offerings and the shifting of professional subjects to the junior and senior years for students taking the four-year course. The typical curriculum pattern thus developed tends to provide general offerings in the first two

years of the course and professional offerings with provisions for specialization in the last two years. Many teachers colleges still offer two- and three-year curriculums for the training of teachers for rural schools and elementary grades in village and town schools. Students electing the shorter curriculums usually take the professional courses in the second and third years.

Many of the town and small city schools still follow the practice of recruiting teachers from the experienced group which has completed two but less than four years of teachers-college work. The tendency, however, in the schools of the large cities is to require a minimum of four years of preparation for employment in any kind of teaching position. This tendency has brought about the development of a somewhat common curriculum in teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities. This curriculum is based on the principle that a broad general education is fundamental regardless of the grade level at which a teacher may desire to teach.

A movement which has given much emphasis to a broad general education prior to professional training is the tendency of many secondary schools to require the Master's degree as a prerequisite to employment on their staffs. Prospective teachers seeking such employment usually pursue one or the other of two plans, namely, (1) they complete the work for the Bachelor's degree without taking any professional courses and then take the Master's degree in education, or (2) they complete the Bachelor's degree with the professional courses required for a certificate and take the Master's degree in the field of major specialization. Students pursuing either plan without definite placement objectives will experience difficulty in securing appointments, since administrative officers vary in their preference for these plans. Teachers preparing for positions in junior high schools, four-year high schools, and six-year high schools will, however, find it easier to secure employment by following the first plan; while those preparing for positions in senior high schools or junior colleges will find the second plan somewhat preferred.

With respect to academic training it should be noted that the teacher seeking his first position will be more likely to meet with success if he is able to secure a certificate to teach in two or more fields, for example, mathematics and general science; history, economics, and political science; English and some foreign language; Latin and French or Spanish; and physics, chemistry, and biology. There is also some demand for candidates who can teach music, art, or physical education and one or more of the conventional subjects.

Specialization in teaching field

(After the teacher has demonstrated his ability as a successful teacher in several fields in a small school his chances for employment in a large school with increase in salary will be enhanced through greater specialization in some major field. Here a Master's degree or the doctorate in a field of specialization, gained through special postgraduate courses in college or university departments of recognized superiority, will prove to be a great asset in securing an appointment in first-class secondary schools.

The tendency of elementary schools to adopt the departmental plan in intermediate and upper grades has contributed to the modern emphasis on specialization in teacher preparation. While too much specialization is not considered desirable, it is generally recognized that successful teaching requires considerable depth of preparation. In most of the states standards of certification have been adopted specifying the minimum amount of preparation required for the different teaching fields. These standards vary only slightly from state to state.

In the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, for example, all members of instructional staffs in accredited secondary schools are required to possess the minimum academic training assumed to be provided by a Bachelor's degree from an institution of higher learning approved by the association or from an institution of equal standing, including minimum special preparation of 15 semester hours in the in-

dividual's teaching assignment. Local accrediting authorities in some of the states in the area of the association have raised the special preparation in some fields to as much as 24 hours.

The close articulation between elementary and secondary schools developed in recent years and the general practice of regarding the seventh and eighth grades as belonging in the secondary division of the school system, irrespective of whether the grades are attached to elementary or secondary units, has tended to emphasize specialization on the part of teachers preparing to teach in the grades in question. Similarly, a certain amount of specialization is also encouraged for elementary teachers who plan to teach in special areas, such as childhood education, remedial reading, adjustment work, fine arts, industrial arts, or subject fields in intermediate grades.

In order to insure adequate preparation for teaching in the areas involving considerable specialization, special certificates are required in most of the states. There appears to be a trend away from blanket certificates. Virtually all the states issue special certificates for teaching in elementary schools, junior high schools, and high schools. Still further differentiation is provided in the high schools through certificates for the various subject fields, such as English, mathematics, science, social science, commercial subjects, fine and industrial arts, and foreign language. Elsbree has made the following comment:

No one seems to know just where the point of diminishing returns is in the matter of specialization, but it is the judgment of many educators that we have already reached it. However true this may be, it appears unlikely that the states will retrace their steps and return to blanket certificates.¹

The advice to the prospective teacher regarding specialization is predicated on the assumption that his undergraduate education has been largely general and not highly professional. This education should result in the development of ability on the part of

¹ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher: Evolution of a Profession in a Democracy*, p. 343. New York: American Book Co., 1939.

the recipient to think both broadly in the major areas of knowledge and deeply in some preferred area. Flexibility is an essential characteristic of the properly trained teacher. For this reason too early specialization is undesirable, especially when it results in closing the mind of the teacher to interests in related fields.

Professional requirements

Professional requirements are no longer met as was formerly the case by teachers' examinations in pedagogy, the science and art of teaching, history of education, psychology, school law, and the like. Evidence of proficiency in professional requirements is now furnished through course credits earned in approved training institutions. The offerings of such institutions are generally much wider than certificate requirements. Most institutions provide for considerable professional specialization through a variety of offerings. The average requirement of professional training for initial secondary-school certificates for all the states as shown by Woellner¹ is 16.9 semester hours. Considerable variation in these requirements is found for different sections of the country, the lowest average being in the New England States (12.4 hours) and the highest in the middle (eastern) states (18.8 hours).

The professional areas in which requirements are specified and the number of states exacting these requirements for initial secondary-school certificates are shown in Table 34. Here it is seen that no single type of professional preparation is required by all the states. Educational psychology and practice teaching are each required in thirty-seven states, while tests and measurements are required in only six states. In each of the areas great differences in course offerings appear. In educational psychology, for example, a wide variety of courses is offered with marked

¹ Robert C. Woellner, "Professional Training Required for an Initial Secondary-School Teacher's Certificate," *School Review*, XLVII (April, 1939), 280-83.

TABLE 34. NUMBER OF STATES WHICH REQUIRE OR MENTION
SPECIFIC PROFESSIONAL COURSES FOR INITIAL TEACHING
CERTIFICATES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN 1938 *

Courses	Number of States
Educational psychology.....	37
Practice teaching.....	37
Curriculum and methods.....	25
Principles of education.....	23
State school laws and constitutions.....	8
Philosophy of education.....	8
Tests and measurement.....	6

* Adapted from Woellner, *ibid.*, p. 282.

differences in content. With little more than the title of the course, name of instructor, and the credit mark of the student, the certificating functionary must decide whether or not a teaching license will be granted. Even so, the plan is superior to the examination method formerly used. However, improvements are needed which can result only from the standardization of professional courses in the training institutions.

In the preparation of teachers for elementary schools, the normal schools of the past have erred in overemphasizing professional offerings. The prospective teacher was plunged into professional courses dealing with methods of instruction, history and philosophy of education, practice teaching, and the like before he was adequately grounded in the major fields of knowledge. As a result the novitiate not infrequently found himself at the end of this training course in the predicament of knowing much about teaching but of not understanding the materials of instruction.

That progress is being made in overcoming the difficulty indicated is aptly illustrated by the curriculum offerings of the State Teachers College, Mankato, Minnesota.

Though the Mankato State Teachers College is a professional school, dedicated to the preparation of young people for the teaching profession, the curriculums are liberal in scope. These are planned to aid all students in obtaining a liberal education, in developing desirable personality, and in acquiring sufficient professional knowledge

and skill to enable them to enter the profession of teaching. In order to accomplish this, the four-year curriculums are divided so that the first two years are purely academic and the last two years are both academic and professional. The first two years, or junior college, are given over to the development of a general background of information prerequisite to a study of the field in which the professional work is to be done. In the last two years, or senior college, the mastery of the field of concentration or special interest is gained, together with the study of the professional courses and the practice with the children in the laboratory and co-operating schools. Running parallel with the four years of academic and professional work is a personnel program planned to give the students every possible opportunity to develop those personal traits desirable for citizenship and for teaching.¹

Directed experience

What the internship has been to the prospective physician, directed experience should be to the future teacher. Mere practice teaching, however, is of no certain worth to the teacher in training. In fact, practice unless skillfully directed may result in the formation of undesirable habits. Because of the potential danger of the adoption of undesirable practices, most institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers now attempt to direct and to control in so far as possible the teaching experience of prospective teachers during the period of training. Training schools are established in which the teaching conditions can be at least partially controlled. In these schools, the student teacher works with and under the direction of a teacher who has been selected for the purpose of directing the student's teaching experience. Whereas formerly this experience was measured in terms of number of lessons taught and the character of the student's planning and teaching, today an effort is made in most schools to provide all types of experience considered necessary in successful teaching under conditions designed to eliminate the possibility of the development of undesirable attitudes and habits.

Through directed experience the student is privileged to ob-

¹ *Annual Catalog, 1939-40*, p. 1. Mankato, Minnesota: State Teachers College, 1939.

serve the teaching of his critic teacher, to participate with his teacher in the planning and executing of classroom work, and finally to assume the responsibility of leadership in planning and executing certain phases of the work under constructive and sympathetic supervision. The student teacher thus acquires real experience in the proper care of the classroom; in the efficient handling of instructional materials and equipment; in the regulation of heating, ventilation, and lighting; in the control and guidance of pupils; in the keeping of records and the making of reports; and in the general administration of the classroom unit.

Professional experience is also acquired in the internship period through association with leaders in the teaching profession. The student in training is privileged to view professional activities and professional problems from the vantage point of an experienced and superior teacher. The relationships of the teacher with the central administrative office, the school principal, professional groups, other teachers in the same system, school custodians, parents, and school community are seen and understood as realities rather than as mere theoretical possibilities.

Through the evaluations of progress made from time to time by the supervising teacher the student acquires an understanding of successful teaching and a critical appreciation of his own abilities and deficiencies. The assistance thus received eliminates much of the waste which results when the individual engages in teaching without a full knowledge of his own effectiveness.

An excellent example of a plan for evaluating student progress in acquiring teaching experience is that in use at the New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey.¹ Ratings are made at the end of each three-week period during the quarter of the student's teaching experience and specific suggestions for improvement are offered. The student is expected to study the ratings carefully and to attempt to carry out the suggestions made. The items on which the candidate is rated are as follows:

¹ *Principles and Practices in the Conduct of Student-Teaching*, p. 12. Upper Montclair, New Jersey: New Jersey State Teachers College, 1939.

I. *Personal Qualities*: Poise, bearing, grooming, voice, use of English, forcefulness, resourcefulness, enthusiasm, tact.

II. *Teaching Skills*: Developing and clarifying objectives; arousing interest; securing sustained, co-ordinated effort; leadership; adaptation of materials to needs of individual and group; use of equipment and accessories; evaluation of results.

III. *Immediate Preparations*: Systematic preparation of lesson plans; command of subject matter; provision for rich and suggestive supplementary materials; relating the business of the hour to the events and thought of the day in community, state, nation, and world.

IV. *Management and Control*: Management of room and equipment; attention to individual needs; promptness and accuracy in routine; economy of time and effort; pupil citizenship.

V. *Professional Relationships*: Co-operation with high school and college; acceptance of criticism and suggestions; ability in self-analysis.

VI. *Results*: Attainment of objectives; growth of pupils; personal and professional growth of student-teacher.

Participation in student activities

The presence of pupil activities in schools at all levels today requires that the teacher in training cultivate interest and acquire experience in some type or types of extracurriculum activities. Such interest and experience may have been acquired in the high-school period. If so, the prospective teacher will have a background of understanding of activities that may prove important and valuable in securing placement and in performing later the duties of sponsorship. The cultivation of high-school interests in extracurriculum activities and the development of new interests in activities during the training period should be encouraged on the ground that the teacher in the modern school is expected to assume numerous responsibilities in the organization and direction of pupil activities.

Even if there were no practical reasons for becoming proficient

in some type of extracurriculum activities during the training course, it would still be desirable to participate in such activities for the personal development of the student. Individuals who lead a normal social life as students during the training period are to be preferred as prospective teachers to those leading abnormal or restricted lives. The modern teacher must accept large responsibility for directing and regulating the informal education of pupils as well as for classroom instruction. His contribution to the enrichment of the opportunities of pupils to acquire valuable informal experiences in non-class situations will be conditioned to no small extent by his own interest and experience in extracurriculum activities.

All that has been said in this chapter is designed to make the prospective teacher aware of the fact that he is himself a problem in administration. He must co-operate with the institutions that are provided by the public to prepare him for his profession if he is to attain the full measure of possible success. There comes a time early in his career when he must assume responsibility for self-direction. Through self-direction he will find it possible to perfect himself in the art of directing his pupils.

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CHAPTER XV

SECURING PLACEMENT

THE climax of successful preparation for teaching is the securing of satisfactory placement. If those who have qualified themselves for teaching experience difficulty in finding positions, they are often greatly discouraged and lose their morale. This discouragement is accentuated when local boards of education adopt rules requiring at least two years of successful teaching experience as the prerequisite of employment. The competition for employment is thus weighted against the newcomers in the field. Securing a position becomes an arduous undertaking. The candidate must go into the open market, often far from home and often into uninviting localities to secure an initial appointment. Considerable expense may be involved in making personal applications or for the services of a commercial agency. The high professional hopes of the young teacher are often crushed by failure to obtain a position or by the kind of position he is compelled to accept in order to secure employment.

Obtaining successful placement is a problem not only for the young teacher just emerging from a period of training, but also for the experienced teacher whose tenure is affected by spoils politics, local pressure groups, and the whims of poorly qualified administrative officers. In recent years the problem has become somewhat acute because of a considerable oversupply of young teachers from training institutions in excess of normal demand. The return to teaching of many ex-teachers who have suffered displacement in other occupations has further accentuated the problem.

Successful placement has become more than a personal prob-

lem for the qualified teacher who is in need of a position. It is a professional problem of general concern. State legislatures which are called upon for appropriations by state institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers are vitally concerned about the relation of the supply of, and demand for teachers. Boards of trustees responsible for the budgets of private institutions which rely upon prospective teachers for a considerable proportion of their students are also deeply concerned regarding the need for teachers in the regions served by their institutions. The disparity between demand and supply has greatly increased the difficulty of securing desirable employment by all teachers except those who are entrenched behind tenure walls.

PLACEMENT PRACTICES

Understanding of placement practices is therefore an important matter for students preparing for teaching, for experienced teachers who are unemployed, and for teachers whose preparation and experience warrant better positions than they hold at present. Any teacher in need of employment will generally experience disappointment unless he is fully informed regarding placement practices and acquires the technique by which successful placement is achieved. How to secure placement is a part of the training program of most institutions now engaged in the preparation of teachers. Appointment offices are usually maintained to assist teachers in securing initial employment and to aid those already employed in securing merited advancement. In order to secure the best results from this institutional service, intelligent co-operation between the teacher desiring employment and the director of the placement service is required.

Securing employment through institutional placement offices

Any institution which prepares a considerable number of teachers must maintain a placement service. This service is supported to promote good relations with the employers of

teachers in the area served by the training institution. Mere job getting for teachers is not a major objective of a placement office. It is just as important to render a satisfactory service to the employer of a teacher as to aid the individual teacher in securing an acceptable position. Only when both the employer and the teacher employed are fully satisfied is the placement service considered successful. If either party to a placement transaction is dissatisfied with the services of the placement office, the training institution suffers a serious loss.

The placement officer must cultivate the good will both of employers and of the individuals whom he undertakes to assist. This purpose is most successfully realized when the officer clearly understands the requirements of his potential employers and the abilities of the candidates he seeks to place.

Because of the unique services rendered to teachers by the placement offices of institutions of higher learning, knowledge of the development of these services to students and graduates is considered important.

Organized placement by institutions which prepare teachers is a development of comparatively recent years. Some placement by such institutions has probably been made incidentally since their establishment, but the development of placement as a function of administration in training institutions is thought to date from 1899 when President William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago made the following statement in his annual report.

In March, 1899, on the recommendation of the University Council, there was organized a Board for recommendation of appointments. It has seemed necessary to systematize more carefully the work of recommending students of the University for positions, especially for teachers' positions. Assistant Professor Robert M. Lovett accepted the secretaryship of this Board, and as secretary has conducted the work.

In making recommendations it has seemed to be a wise policy to guard carefully every official statement given concerning the candidate for any position. The University has been so careful in this par-

ticular that students have sometimes felt themselves injured rather than helped by the statement furnished. It has never been the intention of the University to make a statement or to issue a letter at the request of a student seeking a position which would be distinctly injurious to the student. When, however, a question is raised as to the ability or character of a particular applicant, it is our policy to state the exact truth. Boards of trustees have become so accustomed to letters of an extravagant character that they look with some suspicion upon a letter in which an estimate of a candidate is expressed in moderate terms.

The organization of the Board has greatly relieved the pressure upon the President's office; secured more satisfactory data concerning the attainments of students; furnished the machinery for securing more easily the opinion of instructors; and is a source of great assistance to superintendents of schools and boards of trustees. The work is under the charge of a special committee of five persons, with which is associated a representative of each department of the University. It is evident that the recommendations issued by this Board will prove to be statements on which full dependence may be placed. The name of no student is recommended by the Board who has not spent a year in residence at the University. The recommendation, therefore, is based in every case upon actual, personal knowledge of the student's attainments.¹

The first state university to recognize placement as an institutional function was the University of Nebraska. In its announcements for 1903 the following statement appears:

The University maintains a teachers' bureau to assist students and graduates in securing positions as teachers and at the same time to aid superintendents and boards of education in providing schools with competent and suitable teaching talent. For information, address the Secretary of the Teachers' Bureau.²

After the beginnings just reported, the establishment of placement facilities in teacher-training institutions was rapid. Adams³

¹ *The President's Report, July, 1898-July, 1899*, pp. xxvi-xxvii. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1900.

² *University of Nebraska, Announcements, 1904-1905*, p. 68. Lincoln, Nebraska: University Press, 1904.

³ Walter H. Adams, *The Placement of Students in Teaching Positions as Carried on by Higher Educational Institutions*, p. 30. Abilene, Texas: Abilene Christian College, 1933.

states that approximately 75 per cent of such institutions had established placement bureaus by 1920. The most recent information available regarding placement facilities indicates that not less than 90 per cent of the institutions engaging in the preparation of teachers now maintain placement bureaus.¹

Registration with the placement office is voluntary with students in most teacher-training institutions, although it is usually strongly advised. A few institutions have made registration compulsory. The purpose of such registration is not compulsory placement but the completion of the student's training record for the use of the training institution. Compulsory registration is facilitated when the expense of preparing credentials is met by the institution.

About as many institutions charge registration fees as do not. The fee was found by Batson ² in a study of forty-three institutions to average approximately two dollars in the twenty institutions making such charges. The professional opinion regarding the charging of fees for student registration with placement bureaus is clearly stated by the National Institutional Placement Association:

Charging a fee may imply that the placement officer is primarily the agent of the candidate, whereas he should be primarily interested in helping to find good teachers for the schools. It is a little difficult to justify to some people charging the candidate a fee when the efforts of the office may result in keeping him from securing a position. Information furnished at the request of the employer may show that a candidate is not well-qualified for a specific position. Some institutions needing funds charge a fee as a contribution which everybody must make to increase the spread of placement office activities. This situation justifies a small fee. Before he pays the registration fee the candidate should be told that the office cannot guarantee his placement.³

¹ J. G. Umstattd and Others, *Institutional Teacher Placement*, p. 7. Detroit: The National Institutional Teacher Placement Association, College of Education, Wayne University, 1937.

² W. H. Batson, Mimeographed Report of Questionnaire Returns. Vermillion, South Dakota: School of Education, University of South Dakota. December, 1936.

³ J. G. Umstattd and Others, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

The placement officer recommends candidates when requested to do so and sends out credentials in support of candidates who may have established contacts with employing officials by other means. The service is available to students in residence and to alumni and former students out of residence. The placement officer of the training institution thus becomes the professional counselor of the prospective teacher in securing initial appointment and of the teacher in service in securing professional advancement. If well qualified for the work, this officer can exercise a powerful influence on the personal and professional improvement of the teacher output of the training institution.

The student on admission to a teacher-training institution should become acquainted with the placement office and should continue his relations with the office throughout the training course until placement is secured. Thereafter the placement office will serve as the contact agency between the training institution and the individual teacher in the field. Through this office the teacher's credentials are kept up to date and advisement is given regarding improvements needed for professional advancement.

Methods used in the selection of teachers

Since the policies with respect to teacher recruitment vary from school system to school system and are in general not clearly defined, it is essential that teachers in need of placement acquaint themselves as fully as possible with the methods in use by selecting officials. These methods require a knowledge of placement services, which are frequently not intelligently used by employing agencies. Notices of vacancies may be reported but the specifications regarding these vacancies are not fully disclosed. Likewise, the procedures followed in selecting a teacher are sometimes haphazard and undefined. In such cases both the placement officer and the teacher making application for a position are at a disadvantage. If satisfactory results are obtained in such instances the candidate must be clever in adapting himself to the situation which on investigation he finds to exist.

Some school systems may not find it necessary often to enlist the assistance of institutional placement services in securing applicants for teaching positions. The positions available in these school systems are eagerly sought by many candidates. Applications are made in advance of vacancies and a file is kept by the employing officer of the candidates who request consideration when vacancies exist. This officer may spend considerable time investigating candidates in order that nominations can be promptly made when new positions are created or changes in the employed personnel are made.

The applicant for positions in such school systems is greatly assisted if he is informed regarding the procedures followed in selecting teachers. For example, the teacher who makes inquiry regarding a position in the Indianapolis Public Schools either in person or in writing is given the following statement:

We welcome the opportunity to review the qualifications of all persons who seek positions in the schools of this city. Because it may be impossible to meet you personally at this time, the following statement is made in order that you may be acquainted with the procedure of the superintendent's office in the selection of applicants. You may be sure that your record and credentials receive careful study and full consideration.

1. Each person applying for a position must give full information as requested on a preliminary application form which is given to any prospective applicant upon request.

2. Applicants who appear at the superintendent's office are granted a preliminary interview to the extent that such is possible, either by the superintendent personally or by persons designated by him. A record of this preliminary interview is kept in a central file and is embodied as a part of the complete data which is assembled for each person making application.

3. The preliminary application and the record of preliminary interview constitute the file to which the office makes reference whenever vacancies are to be filled. Those applicants whose records of training, experience and personal adaptability for the particular position which is to be filled indicate that they should receive further consideration are sent a form called "Applicant's Written Interview."

4. After the "Written Interviews" have been returned to the office

by applicants, all data for all applicants under consideration for a particular position are carefully studied. In the case of those applicants whose records show special adaptability for the position to be filled, the office will proceed to compile references and secure an official record of the applicant's eligibility to a state license for the position for which application is made.

5. From the data thus assembled, certain applicants will be invited to come to the superintendent's office for interview with the superintendent and a committee appointed by him. At the time of this interview the applicant will be expected to take a standard general examination which will serve as a measure of general information and general cultural interests.

6. From the information thus assembled, the superintendent, in conference with the assistant superintendents, directors, high-school principals, and others under whom the applicant is to work will determine the applicant who is to be recommended to the board of school commissioners for official appointment.

The procedure described in the foregoing example is a professional method of selecting teachers. Although employed in a large city, the method is applicable in all city systems which have a qualified superintendent of schools.

Criticism of the practice described is justified by the fact that selection is restricted to the candidates who have filed written applications. Better qualified candidates, who would be glad to be considered, are often overlooked because of failure to broaden the search for the best available recruits. The only advantage in restricting the choice to candidates who have filed applications is the fact that the applicants desire to become associated with the particular school system. The assumption is that such candidates, if elected to positions, will take a greater interest in the school and local community than would candidates who have to be solicited to accept appointments. On the contrary, it is possible that in limiting consideration to persons who apply, too many of the roving type of teacher who changes positions almost every year may be secured.

Placement through personal acquaintances

In periods when the supply of teachers exceeds the demand, it is not always possible for the individual to secure an appointment through the customary methods of personal effort and the placement service of his training institution. In certain areas the ratio of supply to demand may vary greatly, thus influencing the percentage of appointments that can be made. In some areas a considerable oversupply of teachers may exist. As a result many inexperienced and some experienced teachers may not be able to secure appointments unless placement opportunities are discovered in other areas. Opportunities are sometimes secured through personal acquaintances in areas where the demand for teachers exceeds the local supply.

A candidate for a teaching position where vacancies are scarce may with propriety write to his personal acquaintances indicating his availability and expressing the desire to hear of vacancies if such are known to exist. If a favorable answer is received letters of application may then be addressed to the officials specified referring them to the placement office of the training institution for confidential credentials if further information is desired. When the position is not too distant and the cost of making a personal application is not excessive, a personal call on the employing official will probably bring better results than the written application.

In no case should a candidate in making application for a position on information supplied by a personal acquaintance indicate the source of the information without his informant's consent. Occasionally, the personal acquaintance may know the employing official sufficiently well to sponsor the application of the individual to whom the information has been given. If so, the applicant should offer to provide confidential credentials through the placement bureau of the institution where he was prepared and to come for a personal interview.

Securing placement through the broadcasting of applications

Some teachers secure their appointments largely on their own initiative through the broadcasting of applications whenever a change in position is necessary or desired. They rely almost solely on their own efforts and the support of general recommendations. Since the tendency among superintendents and many boards of education is to look with disfavor on general testimonials,¹ and to require confidential credentials, it is apparent that the individual applicant to be successful must secure some kind of institutional support. While it is very likely that positions will continue to be filled from individual applications where the candidates are either known or are supported by influential friends, this method of recruitment is rapidly giving place to other methods.

Placement through commercial agencies

The development of placement bureaus in teacher-training institutions has tended to reduce the patronage formerly enjoyed by commercial teachers agencies. Since the former regard placement as a gratuitous service and the latter are unable to operate without service fees, many teachers in need of positions seek the assistance of the commercial agencies only as a matter of last resort. Employers also turn to the agencies for assistance only after other methods of securing desirable candidates have failed. In spite of the changes in placement services pointed out, commercial teachers agencies still exist in considerable number and render in many instances valuable services both to teachers desiring positions and to employing officials in need of suitable candidates.

The methods formerly employed by many agencies, namely, those of buying newspaper clippings and broadcasting the information to all persons registered with them who are considered

¹ In an inquiry addressed to thirty successful school administrators, twenty-two, or approximately 73 per cent, stated that they would not accept general testimonials from applicants for teaching positions.

potential candidates for the existing or impending vacancies reported in the news items, are no longer widely employed. The better agency provides a selective service based largely on calls from employers and available only to teachers considered properly qualified for the calls received. These agencies no longer accept registrants promiscuously, but restrict their services to candidates of known merit. The services of such agencies are occasionally utilized by teachers desiring promotions, who are willing to pay the service fee, usually five per cent of the first year's salary, if desirable professional advancement is secured.

The necessity of securing fees may have caused some commercial agencies in the past to deviate from ethical practices in their dealings both with employing officials and with candidates for positions. Splitting of fees with employing officers, discrediting nonmember candidates, giving commissions for local service, and the like were once considered a part of the placement technique of some agencies. These unethical practices brought about the elimination of the agencies using them. As a result the agencies which have survived have done so because of the ethical standards of their officials and the professional services rendered.

Officers responsible for the selection of teachers are generally advised not to seek the assistance of commercial agencies until they have exhausted the possibilities of securing properly qualified candidates through other means. The very least that a school system should do, if it secures teachers through an agency, is to assume half of the agency's service charge. While it is conceivable that school executives may find it necessary occasionally to seek the assistance of commercial agencies in selecting teachers, generally speaking the necessity for doing so is an admission of inability on the part of the executive to cope with one of the most important problems in educational administration.

FACTORS CONDITIONING PLACEMENT

It is not sufficient merely to know the methods employed by school officials in the recruitment of teachers. Other factors of importance in recruitment should also be understood by the teacher seeking a position. The tendency of many teachers in the past has been to rely too heavily on the placement services of training institutions and to give little thought to the numerous factors involved in securing placement.

Positions available

The possibilities of placement for new teachers in a given area are conditioned by the positions available. In recent years a declining enrollment in elementary schools has tended to reduce the number of teaching positions, thus decreasing the possibilities of vacancies and the opportunities for appointment. Further decrease in teaching positions has resulted from the practice of some school systems of increasing the pupil load of teachers as a means of reducing instructional expenses. The effect has been a gradual decrease in the demand for new teachers.

The situation thus created is clearly seen, for example, from the data presented in Table 35 showing the percentage of placements of graduates of teacher-training curriculums in teachers

TABLE 35. NUMBER OF GRADUATES AND PERCENTAGE OF PLACEMENTS
IN STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES AND LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES IN
PENNSYLVANIA AS OF OCTOBER 1, 1938 *

Curriculums	Teachers Colleges		Liberal Arts Colleges		Total Percentage Placed
	No. of Graduates	Per Cent Placed	No. of Graduates	Per Cent Placed	
Two-year	999	40.7	157	76.4	45.6
Three-year	22	31.8	60	23.3	25.6
Four-year	1,471	57.5	2,747	47.3	50.9
Total	2,492	50.6	2,964	48.3	49.4

* Adapted from Bulletin 152, pp. 20-22, Department of Public Instruction. Harrisburg
Pennsylvania: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, 1939.

colleges and liberal arts colleges in Pennsylvania in 1938. With only half of the graduates in the institutions in question securing positions, it is apparent that the problem of placement becomes very acute. Many graduates are compelled to seek other types of employment and, failing in that, to join the ranks of the unemployed. Some may continue in graduate study with the hope that an additional year or two of preparation for teaching may increase the possibilities of securing satisfactory appointment but others will have to seek employment in nonteaching fields.

The lack of positions is thus an important factor in the placement of new teachers in the state of Pennsylvania. Data from teacher-training institutions in other states would no doubt reveal a similar tendency. The problem thus created cannot be solved by the placement bureaus of the training institutions nor by the individuals desiring appointments. It requires institutional adjustments that must take into consideration the relation of teacher supply and demand.

Data from Ohio State University revealing a more encouraging situation are presented in Table 36 for the major fields of teaching in which the 452 graduates of the College of Education in 1939 were prepared. The graduates receiving appointments up to December 31, 1939 ranged from 41 per cent in history to 100 per cent in industrial arts. The placements in the eighteen major fields averaged 73 per cent. The oversupply of teachers produced by this institution varied greatly for the different teaching fields. The percentage for history, French, fine arts, social studies, and English averaged 48.6; the percentage for industrial arts, home economics, nursing education, agricultural education, and elementary education, on the other hand, averaged 96.8.

Information of the type given in Table 36 should be helpful to students in the institution in question in selecting teaching majors. While the percentages may vary somewhat for the different fields from year to year, the data indicate the areas in which positions are most likely to be available.

TABLE 36. NUMBER OF GRADUATES OF COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, DESIRING TO TEACH IN 1939 AND PERCENTAGE RECEIVING APPOINTMENTS BEFORE DECEMBER 31, 1939 *

Major Field	Number Desiring Positions	Percentage Receiving Appointments
Agricultural education.....	48	96
Biology.....	41	56
Chemistry.....	17	71
Commercial education.....	22	77
Elementary education.....	67	96
English.....	70	53
Fine arts.....	39	51
French.....	20	45
General science.....	18	72
History.....	27	41
Home economics.....	51	98
Industrial arts.....	26	100
Latin.....	13	54
Mathematics.....	20	65
Music.....	34	88
Nursing education.....	52	94
Physical education		
Men.....	19	84
Women.....	16	88
Social studies.....	91	53

* Adapted from Earl W. Anderson, Mary E. Ewan, and Marie Kellstadt, "Teaching Opportunities in 1939," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XIX (April 10, 1940), pp. 231-34.

Certificate requirements

The requirements which the teacher must meet in order to obtain a legal certificate to teach differ greatly from state to state. The greatest variation is found in the requirements for the certificate to teach in elementary schools where the range is from one-sixth of a year of post-high-school education to four years of training in an accredited institution of higher learning. The standards for the secondary-school certificate are more uniform, ranging from four years of post-high-school work in certain states to five years in other states. Some states authorize the issuance of certificates on two to three years of work beyond high school for teaching in the seventh and eighth grades of junior high

schools but require a minimum of four years of work for teaching in the ninth grade. The tendency is clearly in the direction of a minimum requirement of four years of training beyond graduation from an accredited four-year high school for a license to teach at any level. This requirement is in effect in five states, namely, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Delaware, and Rhode Island.

The early practice of issuing certificates on the basis of examinations regardless of academic and professional qualifications is rapidly passing. Twenty-six states have discontinued the practice and in those which still authorize examinations, the general procedure is to issue certificates on the credentials provided by teacher-training institutions in lieu of examinations.

The rights of local educational authorities to issue certificates to teachers have very generally been revoked. The tendency is to place full authority for the certification of teachers in the state department of public instruction. The chief exceptions to the tendency are: (1) the issuing of licenses to graduates of certain educational institutions in eight states; (2) the sharing of the authority with the county in six states; and (3) the granting of the right to large cities to set up their own plans of certification under special legislative enactments.

The accreditation of teacher-training institutions by professional organizations such as the American Association of Teachers Colleges, and by the five great regional associations established to accredit colleges and secondary schools has made the college credential of the teacher the chief medium for certification in the United States. Through its use interstate reciprocity in certification has been achieved, except for special qualifications peculiar to individual states.

Some of these special requirements are: (1) credits or acceptable examinations on state law, state constitution, state government and history, and the like; (2) specified number of hours of credit in professional courses; (3) oath of allegiance to the Constitution of the United States and/or to the state constitution; (4) citizenship or the declaration of intention to become naturalized; (5)

certificate of good health; (6) minimum age requirement; and (7) recommendations or testimonials from educational institutions as to character and professional promise. The possession of the special requirements imposed by a given state would determine the certificate possibilities of the candidate for a teaching position in that state.

Health regulations

A factor that has considerable influence in securing placement is the health standard exacted of teachers. Health regulations may be adopted by state departments of education and local boards of education or may be imposed by state laws. The teacher must be familiar with the health demands of the school system in which applications for positions are filed. Not to do so is to invite needless discouragement and waste of effort.

The tendency of school officials, especially in cities, is to regard a health certificate and evidence of physical vigor sufficient to stand the strain of teaching as prerequisites to employment. The reason for this requirement is found in the fact that about 285,000 teachers are absent from their positions because of illness on the average approximately 2,000,000 working days annually.¹ Since some provision for sick leave is made in about nine-tenths of the cities, it is apparent that the sickly teacher is a financial liability to the school system as well as an unwholesome influence on pupils.

Personal qualifications

The personal qualities of the teacher have much weight in securing placement. In order to utilize his personal qualities effectively, the individual should know what they are and what evaluation is placed on them by employing officials. The problem of the teacher seeking employment therefore becomes one of

¹ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 71. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

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Items	Percentage
Discipline	84.7
General statement or remarks	76.8
Health	73.9
Appearance	63.4
Scholarship	63.4
Skill in instruction	62.6
Character	54.2
Would you employ	50.9
Teach	52.6
Contributed to what grades of	
Cooperation	44.2
Initiative	40.9
Daily preparation	
General estimate of applicant	
Voice	31.5
Use of English	30.4
Weakest points	29.0
Self-control	28.6
Professional growth and interest	
Personality	27.9
Loyalty	26.8
Strongest points	26.1
Understanding of children	
Care of room	25.0
Attention to individual needs	
Of his mental and physical	
Your suggestions right under	
Enthusiasm	21.7
Motivation	20.6
Opinion of applicant	
How would you describe	
His	

announcements of the past several years, the quality of our services is the first and foremost consideration for the use

Analysis of 367 such reference forms was made by staff members of the National Survey of Secondary Education. These forms yielded 267 different items, only eight of which were common to as many as 50 per cent of the forms. The thirty items appearing in at least 20 per cent of the forms are listed in order of frequency in Table 37.

The table presents a composite of the personal qualifications about which employing officials desire confidential information. Candidates who rate low in the qualifications listed would naturally be at a disadvantage in competition with those who rate high. Since the tendency of the better school systems is to secure confidential evaluations of the personal qualifications of candidates prior to their selection, teachers in seeking placement must realize the importance of developing the characteristics which employers consider essential.

Personal habits

The personal habits of the teacher are a matter of greater concern in many communities than his academic and professional qualifications. The latter qualifications are taken for granted if the teacher possesses a certificate to teach. It is the influence of the teacher's example on the pupils that parents expect employing officials to guarantee. Accordingly, public opinion has been developed in certain communities regarding the personal habits of teachers that are approved or disapproved. School officials, therefore, find it necessary in the selection of teachers to make inquiry into personal habits and to acquaint applicants in advance of employment with community demands.

Some of these demands are revealed in an inquiry directed to thirty school systems regarding the personal information about candidates for positions in secondary schools required by boards of education before acting favorably on the nominations made by superintendents or principals. Sixteen of the boards wanted to know whether the applicant used tobacco; 15, whether he used intoxicating liquors; 4, whether he kept late hours; and 4, whether

he engaged in gambling. While a positive answer to one or more of the questions might not prevent the election of a candidate, an explanation would be required or an investigation would be made which might delay the election, thus permitting other candidates whose answers to the questions might be more acceptable to the board to make application.

Marital status

It is generally believed that the employment of married women is an important factor in the oversupply of teachers. Some boards of education oppose the employment of married women as teachers because of this belief. It is not definitely known to what extent the present oversupply is influenced by the fact that married women are employed as teachers. In some systems which do not prohibit their employment, the proportion of married women teachers is estimated to be as high as 40 per cent. Data collected by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers revealed the percentage of married women teachers employed in one- and two-teacher schools as 18.6, in city and consolidated rural schools as 16.5, in junior high schools as 10.0, and in senior high schools as 7.2.¹

The most recent data available on the regulations of boards of education of city school systems indicate that approximately three-fourths of the cities over 2,500 in population do not employ married women as new teachers.² No attempt is made here to evaluate the merits of such regulations. It is merely pointed out that the policy adopted by a school system influences the possibilities of placement for both married and unmarried women seeking teaching positions.

¹ Edward S. Evenden, Guy C. Gamble, and Harold G. Blue, *Teacher Personnel in the United States*, pp. 22-35. National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. II. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 10, 1933.

² *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers — Part I: The Selection and Appointment of Teachers*, p. 19. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. X, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1932.

Location of residence

In seeking placement it is well for the teacher to know the policy of the local school system with respect to the employment of resident and nonresident teachers. Many school systems give preference to local candidates when qualifications are equal. Other systems do the opposite. Data collected from city systems by the National Education Association in 1932 showed that 57.7 per cent of the cities preferred local candidates and 42.3 per cent nonresidents.¹ A study of the systems officially adopting regulations setting forth employment policies showed that 19.2 per cent of the regulations favored the selection of local residents as teachers and 16.2 per cent the selection of nonlocal.² In some communities the home-town candidate regardless of merit is assured an appointment even if some highly successful nonresident teacher must be dismissed to create a vacancy. On the contrary, other school systems refuse to consider local candidates until they have demonstrated their ability as teachers in other communities.

The situation with respect to the residence of teachers warrants the following generalizations: (1) the best schools require, at least, a state-wide area for selection of school men and women; (2) school employees should be selected on merit alone; (3) local residence in itself is no evidence of merit; and (4) the employment of too many local teachers limits the community horizon and results in provincialism.³

Local prejudices

In many communities prejudices exist which prevent the consideration of candidates of certain types. For example, some communities are hostile to teachers having certain religious faiths, political affiliations, social habits, and the like. Such

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

² Deffenbaugh and Zeigel, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

³ J. N. Deahl, "Local Residence and Teacher Employment," *West Virginia School Journal*, LXIV (October, 1935), 30.

candidates are not likely to receive favorable consideration from selecting officials, and even if chosen, they meet with opposition from prejudiced groups which is sufficient to jeopardize school success. It is therefore generally unwise for the teacher to try to overcome such opposition. The better course is to seek placement where such strong prejudices do not exist.

FACTORS IN PLACEMENT UNDER THE CONTROL OF TEACHERS

Whatever the techniques employed by school officials in teacher selection and the services rendered by placement bureaus in training institutions, the fact remains that the teacher is largely responsible for his success or failure in securing placement. He must satisfy the requirements of selecting officials if he is to receive consideration for vacancies. For the teacher to ignore the factors which influence selection in a school system in which employment is sought is to invite defeat. The guidance of placement officers is often valuable in meeting the conditions which are essential to election.

Satisfactory credentials

The credentials presented when a candidate seeks employment should not be regarded as an advertisement of the candidate but rather as a supporting record. The character of the credentials is therefore very largely determined by the individual. If his training program has been well planned and his record is superior, the possibilities of securing placement are greatly increased. When a teacher seeks a new position statements of the candidate's success or lack of success should be included in his confidential credentials. The character of his experience then becomes a matter of greater importance in securing placement than is his training record. If the candidate takes his responsibilities as a teacher lightly and leaves his position because of indifferent service, the record

becomes a liability in securing another placement. An explanation is invariably required by the next potential employer approached by the individual when he applies for a new position. If one experience after another is of the kind just described the credentials become a collection of alibis for failure and the individual's prospects of securing satisfying positions steadily decline. Eventually, only indiscriminating employment officials will give any consideration to the credentials presented.

On the contrary, if the teaching experience of the individual is highly satisfactory, the credentials are thereby improved. They give evidence of promise and success and thus provide substantial support for the candidacy of the individual when another position is sought.

It is important that the teacher view his credentials in correct perspective and accept responsibility for their character. If up-to-date credentials are kept with the placement office of the training institution and are a positive record of progress and successful achievement, they provide the necessary support in securing professional advancement when assistance is desired. The graduate of the training institution should therefore take the initiative in seeing that his credentials present a continuing record of professional development to the end that appropriate support is available whenever it is desired.

While the credentials should always be confidential — that is, the professional statements contained in an individual's record are not to be seen by the candidate — it is essential that he participate in the collection of much of the materials which the credentials contain. Correct personal information, statements regarding subject fields the candidate is qualified to teach, a list of extracurriculum activities he is prepared to sponsor, and a recent photograph should be included with the confidential recommendations. Little needs to be said regarding the materials just mentioned, except to call attention to the fact that frequently it is the less important items which may determine placement. Obviously, no one can expect to receive an appointment unless he

possesses the essential qualifications, namely, the required personal characteristics and the preparation to teach the subjects desired. Selection may and often does hinge on the ability of the candidate to sponsor a certain extracurriculum activity or on the impression made by the photograph of the individual.

Placement officials advise that the credentials of a candidate be specific with respect to the school services he can render in addition to instruction. If he can coach any branch of intramural or interscholastic athletic sports; sponsor special interest clubs; supervise debating organizations; direct an orchestra, band, chorus, or a capella choir; or sponsor a student-government organization, possibilities of election are thereby greatly increased when competition is keen.

In addition, the photograph attached to the credentials should present the individual at his best rather than at his worst. Photographic scales have been made up by MacDougall¹ based on the defects in photographs pointed out by commercial teachers agencies, for the guidance of candidates in securing prints for use in credentials. The best photograph is one that presents a good likeness of the candidate as a person of dignity and good taste. Extremes in photographic setting, posture, expression, and dress are almost certain to create an unfavorable impression.

Impressive application

Thousands of applications for positions are made each year without any apparent results. No answers are received to the written applications requesting consideration and offering to provide confidential credentials or to come for personal interview, if either is desired. Similarly, appointment fails to result from the personal applications which many candidates make. The individuals concerned often wonder why it is that favorable responses are not made to their efforts to receive consideration. The answer in many cases is simple — the application was not impressive.

¹ William A. MacDougall, *Techniques of Teacher Self Placement*, pp. 49-64. Grand Forks, North Dakota: Holt Printing Company, 1935.

The faults of written applications are well known. The seriousness of any particular fault depends upon the employer for whom the application was intended. The application written to a superintendent of schools may differ from that addressed to a board of education which selects its teachers without the aid of professional assistants. The former usually want letters of application to supply fairly complete personal and professional information and to list references; the latter prefer letters to be brief, to indicate the kind of certificate held, and to include a photograph of the candidate. In both cases it is to the advantage of the candidate to use good English, to be direct in the statement of qualifications, and to give good reasons for desiring the position for which application is made.

Many written applications are also wasted because a bona fide vacancy does not exist. The information regarding the vacancy is unreliable, or a tentative choice for the position is virtually agreed upon at the time the vacancy is reported. It is therefore better practice for candidates to limit the number of applications and to file their applications where vacancies actually exist. The candidate might also ascertain in advance of making an application whether the position in question is desirable and whether or not there are local prejudices which would prevent consideration of his application or interfere with subsequent success in case of election.

Candidates who rely on personal applications often waste their money on futile trips which could be avoided. A telephone call to the selecting official would secure the facts regarding the reported vacancy and ascertain if personal application is desired.

The candidate making an application in person should appear at his best in order to make the most favorable impression. Appointments should be made with the officials with whom interviews are sought and the candidate should strive to present his case in as favorable a manner as possible. The time of an interview should not be monopolized by the candidate in talking solely about himself. He should state his qualifications for the

position desired and by carefully formulated questions secure the information about the position and the school system which he needs to know. Questions may then be invited from the interviewers if no effort is made to interrogate the candidate.

Supporting indorsements

While many placements are received through written applications, personal interviews, and confidential credentials, some employing officials require the filing of names of persons from whom specific information can be obtained. Letters of inquiry containing questions regarding the candidate are addressed to these persons. To facilitate the collection of the information desired some officials have prepared mimeographed or printed forms to be filled out by the persons to whom the forms are sent. The information thus secured is used to supplement general impressions and the material contained in the candidate's credentials. Other officials prefer letters from the references listed giving an evaluation of the candidate and setting forth his merits or deficiencies. Still others are willing to receive such statements from qualified persons who write at the candidate's request.

These supporting indorsements are especially valuable in securing placement if the record of the candidate is such as to merit enthusiastic support. They may be used to reinforce or to emphasize points of interest developed through correspondence or interview and to give weight to the claims of the candidate made in his own behalf. Supporting indorsements, if timely employed, are of great assistance to the candidate in concluding personal negotiations. However, such indorsements should not be requested by the candidate, unless he is reasonably certain that he has made a good impression and is receiving consideration for the position for which he has applied.

Concluding the contract

Important as it is for a teacher to secure an election to a position, he must not consider placement as a settled fact until a

legal contract with an employing body has been concluded. No one can afford to be uninformed regarding the conditions essential to the negotiation of a bonafide contract. Most necessary of all conditions is the possession of a proper certificate. Without such a certificate any contract to teach is void. It is therefore essential that the first step in seeking employment is to obtain a certificate or to have positive knowledge that a certificate can be secured. It is also desirable to know the statutes of the state in which a position is sought regarding the conditions required to make a contract valid. If the law specifies that the contract must be in writing the teacher should insist upon receiving the contract as soon after election as possible, and after receiving the contract, he should sign and return it promptly, since the courts have ruled that a board may by a majority vote rescind its act of employment at any time before a contract which has been issued is completed.

The superintendent of schools has a responsibility to the teacher who has been tendered a position. Since the teacher is usually not present when the act of election takes place, it is the duty of the superintendent to notify the teacher promptly regarding the election and to submit the written contract agreed upon for signature. Even if a written contract is not required, it cannot rest upon *parol*,¹ since the law generally requires that the terms and conditions of employment must be entered upon the minute books of the employing body. Neglect by the employing body or the teacher employed may result in the loss of a contract unless the conditions of employment are properly understood.

Since the responsibility for the nomination of teachers is frequently delegated to the superintendent of schools, his promise of a position to a teacher may be considered equivalent to election. Such is not the case, since only the legally chosen selecting body can elect a teacher to a position. The teacher should therefore

¹ Term used chiefly in law meaning oral utterance or that which is not documentary.

request a notice in writing of his election and should submit his acceptance in writing when a written contract is not required. In states which require written contracts the return of the completed document to the teacher after signatures of both parties have been attached is legal evidence that a valid contract has been concluded.

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CHAPTER XVI

PROFESSIONAL SECURITY

IT IS natural for the teacher who has attained a professional status to desire security from the hazards which threaten his position. Not infrequently, successful teachers have been dismissed from their positions for trivial reasons. Such dismissals damage the professional reputation of the individuals concerned and often render future employment difficult, if not impossible. Because of the personal losses suffered from the seemingly ruthless actions of employing officials, teachers have sought the aid of their state legislatures in securing protective legislation which prevents hasty or irresponsible dismissals by boards of education. Some teachers have affiliated with pressure organizations as a means of enlisting influential support in case of unfair or unwarranted action by boards of education. Others have attempted to secure protection by currying favor with political forces. In both instances the remedies sought may prove worse for the professional welfare of the individual than the dangers which menace his position.

The basis of the insecurity which threatens many teachers can be explained in part by the conditions of employment in local areas, although these conditions are in turn merely a reflection of influences of much wider scope. The problem of the profession thus becomes one of enlisting the support of its individual members in seeking the elimination of the general influences which contribute to the undesirable local conditions.

AUTHORITY OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION OVER TEACHERS

The contribution of the individual teacher to professional security is determined largely by the influence he can exert in his own locality. Relatives, friends, and personal acquaintances are susceptible to his influence if through clear and forceful exposition he can present the problems of greatest concern to the teaching profession and indicate the vital relation of these problems to the welfare of the community. He cannot expect to exercise great influence in shaping the thought of the people with whom he has face-to-face relations unless he is thoroughly informed. He should therefore know the legal basis of the administrative control of the board of education under which he serves, since his professional security is very largely determined by the use made by this board of its authority.

General authority of boards of education over teachers

The laws of the states are fairly specific with respect to the authority of boards of education over teachers, since one of the most important functions of such boards is the employment of the personnel needed in carrying on the work of the schools. A board cannot act in defiance of the laws enacted by the legislature of the state without being amenable to the courts. The intention of the legislature in delegating authority to local boards of education is that these bodies when legally organized shall exercise only the authority delegated by statute or that therein implied. A board under the grant of power made by the state legislature has the power to enact at its discretion reasonable regulations for the government of teachers. The courts very generally rule that when a board so acts it is within the sphere of its delegated authority unless evidence to the contrary is presented. Regulations are held to be unreasonable only when they are shown to operate in such a way as to defeat the purposes which they were intended to serve. They are declared void if found to contravene a statute enacted for the general control of the schools.

The enactments of many boards prescribing regulations that control teachers have been carried to the courts. Those enactments most frequently questioned are the rules which have appeared to threaten the teacher's professional security.

Authority to dismiss teachers

Regulations have been adopted by many boards of education asserting their authority to dismiss teachers for cause or even at will. These regulations are frequently embodied in the contracts which teachers are required to sign. For example, the contract may contain a clause to the effect that the board reserves the right to discharge the teacher at any time. Such contracts are considered by teachers to jeopardize their professional security, since the board of education assumes the right to act both as prosecutor and judge. When dismissals have been made by boards which include clauses providing for arbitrary dismissals in their contracts, some teachers have taken their cases to the courts. The rulings obtained in such cases reveal considerable differences in interpretations of the authority of boards to abrogate contracts and to dismiss teachers from service. The decisions range from complete affirmations of the rights of boards to dismiss at will to the limitation of board rights to dismiss only for causes specified in the statutes and in accordance with the methods therein prescribed. Generally speaking, most courts are inclined to interpret liberally the rights of boards to make rules and regulations regarding the dismissal of teachers when such enactments are not in conflict with existing laws.

Authority to change professional status of teacher

The courts have occasionally been asked to rule on the authority of boards of education to transfer a teacher within a system to a position of a lower grade than that in which the teacher was originally employed or in which a professional status has been established. These changes may injure the professional pride of

the teacher and in some instances may result in loss of salary and in personal inconvenience.

The authority of a board to transfer a teacher is generally recognized by the courts, provided professional status under existing state laws or board rules is not disregarded. If the contract specifies that it is made subject to the rules and regulations of the board, the obligation is just as binding as if the rules and regulations were specified at length in the written agreement. A ruling in point was made by the Appellate Court of the State of Illinois.¹ A teacher who had taught in the city schools of Jacksonville for several years was assigned after re-election to a colored school. The assignment was protested and the tender of contract was declined. Later the teacher was offered a position in one of the schools for white children and the regular contract of the board of education was then signed, but before the opening of school the assignment of position was again changed to a colored school. At the opening of school the teacher refused to accept the assignment and sued the board. The case was carried to the court of appeals where a decision was rendered sustaining the board on the ground that the contract of the teacher which did not specify assignment to a particular school bound the teacher to accept the assignment of the board. The rules asserted the right of the board to assign a teacher to teach in any school or department that in the judgment of the board the best interests of the schools required.

In the absence of statutory enactments or official rules and regulations on the question of transfer, a specific clause in the contract stating the type of service to which the teacher is to be assigned, is the only protection, other than the good sense of professionally trained officers, against the misuse of transfer rights by employing boards.

¹ *City of Jacksonville v. Akers* 11 Ill. App. 393. *Underwood v. Board of Education* 104 S. E. 195.

Implied authority to dismiss for adequate cause

It is generally held that a board of education has the implied power to dismiss for adequate cause a teacher whom it has employed when the statutes of the state are silent on the power of the board to dismiss for cause. The Supreme Court of Nebraska has held that the common law pertaining to master and servant applies in such instances:

The authority to terminate the employment of a teacher must rest somewhere, and in the absence of an express provision on this subject it should, we think, be governed by the general rule of the common law applicable in analogous cases, and be held to reside with those whose duty it is to represent the district in making the contract, and who are also directly responsible for the successful management of the school. By the common law, if a servant neglect the duties of his employment, or is incompetent to perform them with reasonable skill, he may be discharged at once although hired for a definite period of time which has not yet elapsed.¹

The assumption in the absence of specific law is that the board of education must be the judge of what constitutes an adequate cause for teacher dismissal. In states where the statutes are silent the court is the final judge if an aggrieved teacher shows that error or improper motive influenced the action of the board.

TURNOVER AMONG TEACHERS

The basis for the feeling of professional insecurity among teachers in a locality or state depends to a considerable degree on the extent of the turnover. A low rate of turnover indicates stability of personnel and results in a feeling of security. On the contrary, a high rate of turnover is conducive to a feeling of insecurity. If the turnover is considered unnecessarily high, it tends to impair professional morale and contributes generally to unsatisfactory school conditions.

Teachers seeking positions should, if possible, avoid school systems with high rates of turnover. If the annual changes in

¹ *Boys v. State* 6 Neb. 167.

the teaching personnel of a school system average, for example, from 25 to 50 per cent, the rate of turnover is too high to provide any sense of security for the teachers therein employed. It would be better for teachers not to seek appointments in such systems than to risk the hazard of the rapid turnover. Knowledge of turnover is therefore important to the teacher when making application for a position.

Extent of turnover among teachers

It is difficult to state what constitutes a satisfactory rate of turnover for a school system. Williams declares that "we are doubtless justified in viewing with concern a situation in which, year after year, a third or more of the teachers are changed,"¹ and Staffelbach holds that "it augurs ill indeed for education that one-third of the children each year face a teacher who is occupying the position for the first time."² Evidently, turnover presents a serious professional problem when conditions such as those just cited are found, or when a situation exists such as that indicated by Simon in which only 642, or 15.6 per cent, of the 4,115 secondary-school teachers and administrators holding positions in town and township schools in Indiana in 1926-27 were still employed five years later, in 1932-33.³

The rate of turnover in the United States in all except the most favored school systems is sufficiently high to justify the feeling of insecurity which prevails in a number of the states. For example, in rural schools of the one- and two-teacher type 40 per cent of the teachers are new to their positions each year.⁴ In the

¹ Lewis W. Williams, "Turnover Among High-School Teachers in Illinois," *School Review*, XL (June, 1932), 426.

² E. H. Staffelbach, "Teacher Turnover," *Sierra Educational News*, XXVII (February, 1931), 20.

³ Donald L. Simon, *Turnover among Teachers in the Smaller Secondary Schools of Indiana*, p. 4. Doctor's dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1935.

⁴ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 59. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

elementary schools of the United States one teacher out of five changes his position annually.¹ Recent data are not available for secondary-school teachers. However, the findings of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers revealed a ratio of new teachers to the total number employed in junior high schools of 1 to 4.95 and in senior high schools of 1 to 4.24 in the median state.²

The favored systems are usually the large cities which provide better salaries and greater security than the small cities and towns. In the group of cities above 100,000 in population, the turnover for elementary-school teachers is only 5 per cent.³ Data for secondary schools in these cities would probably show even less turnover than is found in the elementary schools.

Causes of turnover

In general, turnover among teachers can be attributed to (1) dismissal or refusal on the part of the employing authority to re-elect and (2) voluntary withdrawal from positions held. In a study of 2,971 cases of turnover in the town and township high schools of Indiana in 1932, Simon found that 59 per cent of the turnover was accounted for by dismissals, 39 per cent by voluntary withdrawals, and 2 per cent by unknown causes. He was able to account for the dismissals and withdrawals under six causes which appeared to be responsible for the turnover, namely, politics, professional reasons, personal matters, economic factors, community issues, and miscellaneous causes.

The data show that politics accounted for nearly 61 per cent of the cases of dismissal but less than one per cent of the cases of voluntary retirement. Professional causes, such as inability to control pupils, failure to meet certificate requirements, refusal to overcome deficiencies in training, lack of co-operation, unsatis-

¹ *Ibid.*

² E. S. Evenden, "The Supply and Demand for Senior High School Teachers," *School Life*, XVII (January, 1932), 92-93; "The Demand for and Supply of Junior High School Teachers," XVII (March, 1932), 132-33.

³ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, op. cit., p. 59.

factory service, and resignations to accept better positions or to continue training were responsible for approximately 23 per cent of the cases of dismissal and 50 per cent of the withdrawals. Unsatisfactory personal qualities, marriage, ill health, old age, family difficulties, and immorality constituted in the main the personal causes (18 per cent) for which teachers were dismissed or voluntarily retired. Economic factors, such as salary difficulties and the necessity of reducing the size of the teaching staff accounted for a greater percentage of turnover than community causes, such as lack of social adjustment, community dissatisfaction, and public gossip. Economic factors and community causes together accounted for a little over 14 per cent of the cases studied. Only about two per cent of the turnover cases were classified under miscellaneous causes.

The evidence presented in the study cited shows that a certain amount of turnover is to be expected and is even desired by the teachers themselves. In small schools like those studied, the percentage of turnover throughout the country caused by voluntary withdrawal can be expected to be fairly high, inasmuch as such positions do not offer the professional opportunities desired by ambitious, well-prepared teachers. Some turnover resulting from dismissals should also be expected. School officials would be derelict in their duties if they retained incompetent or unsatisfactory teachers. The number of such teachers is apparently not very great since the total dismissals for professional reasons found by Simon was only 13.6 per cent of the number employed.

The data regarding turnover just considered — and it is believed that these findings are typical of conditions in the country as a whole — are not such as to occasion professional alarm. It is the turnover for unwarranted causes that creates the feeling of insecurity and tends to lower the morale of the professional group.

Differences in turnover between men and women

Analysis of the data on turnover collected by Simon discloses

that the percentage of men and women losing their positions because of dismissal is about the same — 59.5 per cent of men and 58.9 of women. Similarly, the percentage of men and of women who withdrew voluntarily from teaching service is approximately equal — 37.8 per cent of men and 38.6 per cent of women. Some variations in the proportions of men and women teachers leaving the profession are revealed when the data are broken down according to the specific reasons listed in Table 38. Slightly greater percentages of men than of women are dismissed for political, economic, and community reasons, whereas the reverse is true for professional and personal reasons. In the case of the voluntary withdrawals, the variations are more marked. A considerably greater percentage of the men withdraw for professional reasons while a considerably greater percentage of women withdraw for personal reasons. Economic reasons are also responsible for the withdrawal of more men than women.

Turnover in relation to length of service

Further refinement of the data for teachers employed in town and township schools in Indiana reveals that professional reasons account for the dismissal of approximately 33 per cent of the teachers during the first three years of service and 14.3 per cent thereafter. Of the number of teachers withdrawing voluntarily,

TABLE 38. PERCENTAGE OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS LEAVING POSITIONS IN TOWN AND TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS OF INDIANA THROUGH DISMISSAL OR VOLUNTARY WITHDRAWAL FOR REASONS SPECIFIED *

Reasons	Men		Women	
	Dismissal	Withdrawal	Dismissal	Withdrawal
Professional.....	13.7	24.7	15.9	14.8
Political.....	30.6	.3	28.7	.2
Personal.....	5.6	2.8	8.4	16.8
Economic.....	5.1	9.2	3.5	6.3
Community.....	2.9	.3	1.2	—
Miscellaneous.....	2.2	.5	1.2	.5

* Adapted from Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

45 per cent did so during the first three years of service and 54 per cent thereafter. Politics accounted for 35.5 per cent of the dismissals by the end of the third year of employment and for 6 per cent after the third year. The ratio of dismissals during the first three years of service and those after the third year was found to be 1:1.13, and of withdrawals, 1:1.71.¹

It is apparent from the findings considered that the turnover in the town and township schools of Indiana is heavy during the first three years of service. While the turnover is even greater thereafter, the tendency is for turnover to taper off after the sixth year of employment. The tendency is accounted for largely by the state tenure law which began to operate for those teachers considered in the study who had been privileged to sign their fifth consecutive contract to teach in the same school system.

Turnover in relation to qualifications

If the turnover caused by dismissals were restricted largely to the group with poorest qualifications, general improvement in the professional character of teaching staffs would inevitably result. It would then be possible through careful selection to raise the professional qualifications of the school staff with each new appointment. If dismissals and nominations were made by professionally trained executives the improvement in professional qualifications might be realized. Since a large percentage of teachers is still selected and dismissed by school boards, it is evident that turnover in so far as it results from the unguided action of lay officials will continue to be a factor unfavorable to the professionalization of teaching.

Data collected by Simon² show that members of the teaching staff with more than five years of tenure in their positions, while not excelling the first-year members greatly in amount of training, are rated a little higher in teaching success. Comparison of the teachers leaving the school systems with those remaining

¹ Simon, *ibid.*, pp. 43-46.

² *Ibid.*, p. 119.

discloses very little difference in the professional qualifications and success ratings of the two groups. The evidence indicates that turnover is not utilized intelligently by employing officials in town and township systems to improve the professional qualifications of the teaching personnel.

In the larger cities which have sought to eliminate unnecessary turnover in their teaching staffs a conscious effort is constantly put forth to improve the professional qualifications of staff members. In-service training is provided and salary schedules are devised to place before teachers incentives to improve their qualifications from year to year. Some of these school systems spread their salary increases over long periods to guard against the loss of incentives to improve after an established standing has been reached. Measures are also employed to contribute to the professional and economic security of the successful teacher.

THE MOVEMENT TO SECURE TENURE

The desire for a reasonable degree of security has prompted teachers throughout the United States to seek legal protection from the uncertainty of discharge for political, religious, personal, or any other unjust reason. Great progress has been made in securing such protection in recent years. The movement through which the results were accomplished is a type of co-operative action on the part of teachers and public with which every teacher should be conversant.

The beginning of the movement to secure tenure for teachers was probably influenced by the tendency to extend the principle of civil service to persons engaged in various kinds of public service. Civil service for employees of the United States government dates from the passage of the Pendleton Act in 1883. At that time the principle of appointment on merit was applied to 15,000 government positions and each presidential administration since that time has gradually extended the service. Under civil service, removal from position for cause is possible but the

probability that it will be done for political reasons has been greatly decreased. Furthermore, new appointments must be made from lists established by competitive examinations. The federal civil-service law established a national civil-service commission to aid in perfecting the service. Today approximately three-fourths of all government positions are filled through competitive examinations.

A number of the states have enacted civil-service legislation applicable to employees in certain services of the state and many large cities have sought through legislation pertaining to home rule to apply civil service to large numbers of municipal employees. The improvement in services resulting from merit appointments and the reduction in turnover due to political reasons¹ has met with general approval on the part of the public.

Scott¹ points out that enactments to improve the tenure of public-school teachers in certain states have followed rather closely the enactments of civil-service laws for civil employees. Perhaps the two types of legislation are but phases of the same general development. Recognition of the need for some type of civil service in the teaching profession was given by the National Educational Association in 1885 through the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, that the growing importance of the teacher's tenure should secure for that subject a higher place on the list of topics known as "civil service reform." While it is generally admitted that the tenure is intimately related to many important phases of education, and that reform is urgently called for, there is still need of a much fuller discussion of the subject in its practical bearings. The tenure should be practically co-extensive with the period of successful service, neither stopping short of nor passing beyond this limit; but the question is, how shall we secure that end? Such are the importance and difficulties of the subject, that we recommend the appointment of a committee of five to report on it next year.²

¹ Cecil W. Scott, *Indefinite Teacher Tenure*, pp. 10-13. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 613. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934.

² *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Educational Association* (1885), p. 19.

A brief report was submitted by the committee at the annual meeting in 1887, but the sentiments expressed in the discussion of the report were such as to warrant nothing more at the time than its printing in the annual volume of proceedings of the association.

Efforts of National Education Association

Little of a specific character was attempted by the National Education Association to improve the tenure of teachers until 1921, when the "Committee on Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions," which had been appointed in 1911 and had made substantial reports on salaries and pensions, submitted a preliminary report on which seven questions pertaining to tenure were proposed for future discussion and investigation.¹ The following year an extended report was made sketching the history of tenure and presenting certain facts to illustrate the need of tenure legislation and the fundamental provisions of a tenure law.² Supplementary reports were made at each meeting of the National Education Association for the next three years. The material thus presented constituted the basis for the work of the Tenure Committee of One Hundred which was appointed in 1923 and which then began an exhaustive study of the tenure problem. This committee submitted an annual report each year between 1924 and 1928 and utilized every influence it could muster in support of tenure legislation. Since 1928 the committee has been less active, although continuing to function.

The work of the National Education Association through its several committees on tenure has without doubt been influential in bringing about considerable legislation of various types designed to provide greater security of positions for teachers. Whereas in 1920 only five states — California, Massachusetts

¹ "Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1921), pp. 140-57.

² "Report of the Sub-Committee on Tenure," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1922), pp. 79-86.

Montana, New Jersey, and Oregon — recognized the principle of permanent tenure for teachers, and only two other states, Ohio and Pennsylvania, legalized appointments for three-year terms;¹ today tenure laws exist in twenty-six states and laws permitting continuous contracts are in force in six other states.²

Influence of state teachers' associations

State teachers' associations have taken an active part in the campaigns to secure tenure legislation. Pamphlets have been prepared by special committees of these associations in support of proposed legislation and resolutions approving such legislation have been adopted at annual meetings of the associations. Cott³ states that he has received proof of the activities of associations in seven states in which tenure legislation has been acted. He also reports claims of influence exerted by other state associations in securing the enactment of tenure laws.

The publicity achieved by the state associations in support of tenure has been effective in exposing the abuses resulting from excessive and unjustifiable turnover and in making the public conscious of the fact that the children in the schools suffer when incompetent teachers are dismissed from positions for trivial reasons. The main purpose which has controlled the activities of these associations in support of tenure is the protection of teachers from the insecurity resulting from unjust dismissal. The claims made in behalf of tenure have very generally agreed with those set forth in the reports of the National Education Association. The following statement is illustrative of the claims for tenure made in the official organs of some of the state associations:

It must be thoroughly understood that tenure, important as it may be to the teachers involved, is primarily needed in the interests of the schools and the children. Proper tenure lends itself to improving the

"Report of the Committee on Tenure," *op. cit.* (1921), pp. 145-55.

Donald DuShane, "The Status of Tenure Legislation," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXVII (May, 1938), 155.

Op. cit., pp. 17-21.

stability of the profession. A thoroughly adequate tenure law does not protect the incompetent teacher, as many suppose. It protects the community against the incompetent teacher and through promise of added stability, secures and holds in the profession those men and women best qualified to teach.¹

Activities of the American Federation of Teachers

From its organization in 1916 the American Federation of Teachers has taken an active part in various state and city campaigns to secure permanent tenure for teachers. In this activity it has frequently had the support of the American Federation of Labor with which it is affiliated. The reasons given for the ardent support of tenure measures by the federation are (1) the security which tenure affords, (2) the elevating influence on the profession resulting from the retention of competent teachers, and (3) the beneficial effect on teaching of academic freedom which permanent tenure insures.

The support given to proposed tenure legislation by the federation has been more aggressive and militant than that of the professional organizations previously mentioned. As a result civic organizations usually opposed to militant action have in some cases become aroused by the federation's activity and have vigorously opposed its tenure measures.

ISSUES IN TEACHER TENURE

The primary purpose of tenure legislation should be the prevention of unjust dismissals of competent teachers by local school authorities. In enacting such legislation the state exercises its vested rights to protect the instruction of the young by restricting the power of its local agents in the selection and retention of teachers. A secondary purpose of tenure legislation is to provide professional security for properly qualified teachers of known

¹ H. A. Chamberlain, "The Legislative Outlook," *Sierra Educational News*, XXII (June, 1926), 379-80.

merit. It is not the intention of professional groups of the state legislatures which enact tenure laws to protect incompetent teachers. If the laws operate to the advantage of the inefficient, the fault is usually to be found in the administration of the laws and not in their basic purposes. The fact that such legislation is comparatively new is responsible for the lack of understanding that exists with respect to tenure. With a knowledge of the issues of tenure, teachers may participate intelligently in groups in advancing professional security.

Different types of tenure

If the laws of a state do not legalize for more than one year the contracts made with teachers by boards of education it can scarcely be said that the teachers of the state have tenure. If the laws permit contracts to be issued for two or more years, a greater security is provided, although teachers so employed still have no guarantee of continuous employment. After a probationary period has been served teachers may in some states be appointed with continuing contracts; that is, their employment continues from year to year unless they are notified by a specified date that employment is to be terminated. Even if the law required that causes be specified when contracts are discontinued and that hearings be provided, the teacher in such school systems can never feel entirely secure.

The greatest security is achieved under legislation which provides for permanent tenure. After a satisfactory probationary period ranging from three to five years, the appointment of the teacher becomes permanent subject to efficient service and professional conduct. The teacher who has been accorded a permanent status in a school system can then be removed only after charges have been preferred and, when formally requested, an official hearing has been granted.

In seeking permanent tenure teachers' organizations generally insist that the causes for which dismissal can be made and the procedures to be followed should be written into the tenure act.

They also insist that the dismissed teacher is entitled to a hearing before the full board, if desired, and that provision be made for the review of the case by an appeal board or special committee if error or inadequate proof of charges can be shown.

There would be less objection to the granting of permanent tenure, if greater protection to the public were provided in the tenure laws. It is a well-known fact that continued in-service improvement on the part of teachers who have been accorded tenure status must be largely taken for granted. It would therefore appear desirable that after the granting of security of position an appraisal of the teacher's professional growth be required at intervals of five to ten years to ascertain the rights of the teacher to continued tenure. Teachers shown to have made no professional progress since receiving tenure status would under such requirements be placed on probation for a period of one year during which time substantial improvement would have to be made or their rights to professional security would be forfeited.

Reasons for tenure legislation

Persons who advocate tenure in states which have not enacted such legislation cite the fact that approximately 40 per cent of the public-school teachers of the United States are employed in schools which operate under tenure statutes, and that about 20 per cent serve in schools under permissive or unclassified tenure regulations. The remaining 40 per cent must secure their elections from year to year. The latter fact does not mean that the tenure of competent teachers in the school systems practicing annual elections is altogether insecure. However, the conditions make insecurity possible, since the policies of boards of education with respect to the employment of teachers may change with the turnover in membership of the board. Generally speaking, boards of education in villages, towns, and small cities or township trustees are more likely to be influenced in the selection of teachers by personal considerations, political obligations, and petty reasons than are boards of middle-sized and large cities.

The latter are farther removed from the influences which board members and trustees often find it difficult to resist. Furthermore, the nomination of teachers in these cities is usually made by the superintendent of schools, the board merely approving or disapproving his nominations. In the smaller districts the boards more frequently act without professional advice. Hence, their choice of teachers is more likely to be prompted by personal and political considerations than by the sole purpose of obtaining the best educational services their money will secure.

The middle-sized and large school systems are not without faults in the administration of their teaching staffs. In some of these systems reappointments have been withheld to demonstrate the authority and determination of the board or to create subservience on the part of the teachers. Competent teachers who have refused to yield their independence or to sacrifice their professional ideals have in some instances been dismissed. Even in large systems operating under continuing contracts disregard for the principles of tenure has occasionally been flagrant.

Objections made against tenure

The laws establishing tenure in some of the states do not appear to have greatly improved the conditions they were intended to correct. Increases in turnover immediately followed the enactment of such legislation, the intention of certain employing bodies evidently being to prevent teachers from securing tenure. Teachers whose services were entirely satisfactory were not infrequently notified at the end of the probationary period that they would not be reappointed because the employing agents were opposed to tenure on general principles. The reasons for their opposition were based in some instances on imperfections in the tenure laws and in other instances on difficulties of administration.

The objections most commonly advanced against tenure are: (1) it operates best where it is not needed, (2) it renders difficult the dismissal of the incompetent, (3) it tends to develop a smug indifference to professional improvement, (4) it increases the per-

centage of staff members who are rated between average and barely acceptable, (5) it increases the difficulties of administrative and supervisory officers, (6) it encourages a high turnover of probationary teachers, (7) it tends to create unfavorable public opinion regarding the teaching staff in many communities, and (8) the hearings conducted in cases of dismissal have been injurious to professional morale and to lay opinion regarding the schools. The merits or defects of the objections listed are determined by the character of the tenure law. Teacher groups seeking tenure legislation should refuse to sponsor measures that would tend to justify the foregoing objections.

Difficulties in securing dismissal

In attempting to prevent the dismissal of efficient teachers, the framers of tenure legislations have generally made it extremely difficult to secure the dismissal of inefficient teachers. As a result, very few dismissals for incompetence are ever made, since administrative officers dread the publicity and the disagreeable personal consequences which dismissal hearings usually entail. For this reason they tend to permit inefficient teachers to continue in service year after year rather than to risk a trial before the board.

A review of the public hearing in which the dismissal of teachers charged with incompetence or inefficiency has been sought reveals that the objection to tenure on the ground indicated has much factual support. A single example from the city of Chicago is sufficient to demonstrate the basis of the difficulty indicated.

Superintendent William McAndrew in 1927 suspended a teacher who was reported by her principal as unsatisfactory subject to the approval or disapproval of his recommendation for dismissal by the board of education. In submitting his recommendation to the board he pointed out that the teacher had been tried by eight other principals all of whom had followed the line of least resistance customarily practiced in the Chicago schools of rating her near the failure line. The recommendation for dismissal according to McAndrew was not based on a technicality

but on the testimony of numerous observers of her failure to approach a reasonable degree of satisfaction.

I made a careful investigation. I afforded the teacher the opportunity, in the presence of those who were familiar with her work, to present her side of the case. I laid the matter before the entire Board of Superintendents, whose findings were that her methods of instruction are unsatisfactory and not in accord with recognized standards of teaching; she fails to maintain discipline; she fails to follow directions; suggestions for her improvement are not effective, and I therefore suspended her from the service.

Since we are not experiencing a shortage of teachers, nor required, as during the War to retain teachers of doubtful ability; since we have a waiting list of 863 applicants and since it is my duty to consider the parents of the children and the interests of the city which is paying for service and entitled to the best, I feel that the benefit of doubt should be given to the public rather than to the teacher.

I recognize that dismissal is contrary to a time-honored Chicago tradition. There are almost no dismissals for incompetency: . . . But it seems incredible that only three one-hundredths of one per cent, out of 12,000 teachers, indicate the number whom the Board has separated from the service on the ground of inefficiency. The law evidently intended an early relief from unsatisfactory service. The provision for dismissal during the probationary term was inserted in order that the interests of the children could be safeguarded without delay. After probation a teacher is considered to have won the right to trial with the aid of counsel; but for years little attention to the performance of the duty implied in the probation period has been exercised. . . .

I do not find any personal prejudice against this teacher by any of the twelve persons who visited her class and whose duty it is to report the facts. Held responsible for good service to the parents of our children, I do not feel that we should use these children any further as experimental material by which she can be developed into a satisfactory teacher. It is unbelievable that a private school would retain a teacher of this low degree of efficiency. We ought not knowingly to offer our public a service inferior to that of private schools, nor to be less insistent in clearing service rolls of poor work than are our neighboring communities. May I therefore recommend that you do not reverse the action of the Superintendent in suspending this teacher from service.¹

¹ Official Report of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, March 23, 1927, pp. 1326-27.

An objection by one of the members of the board of education was sufficient to cause the board to order the transfer of the teacher to another school, thus giving confirmation to the complaint of the superintendent that it was practically impossible to present a case so that the charges would stand before the board. That dismissal from service is not often made under the tenure law in Chicago for any cause except gross immorality is supported by the fact that only ten teachers with permanent status were dismissed for incompetence from a staff of over 12,000 in the seven-year period 1920 to 1927.¹

In most large cities which operate under tenure legislation the dismissal of teachers because of unsatisfactory service rarely occurs. If the superintendent prefers charges against a teacher and reports the case to the board of education with a recommendation for dismissal, the teacher is notified and is granted a hearing before the board, if a request for a hearing is made. At the hearing, the teacher is entitled to be represented by legal counsel. The hearing then becomes a trial in which the evidence supporting the charge is submitted and the officers responsible for the charge are cross-examined by the defendant's counsel.

The difficulties encountered in most dismissal cases are so great that administrative officers often evade the issue by transferring the inefficient teacher from school to school until a principal is found who is willing to give a rating of "barely satisfactory" and here the teacher remains indefinitely in the security of a tenure that was never intended to give protection for the type of service that is rendered.

Methods sometimes resorted to in voiding tenure

Some boards of education have attempted to evade tenure obligations to certain teachers by transferring them to undesirable assignments and by abolishing positions held by these teachers when it is found desirable or necessary to reduce the number of teachers employed. The courts have ruled in such cases that

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 1326.

while boards of education have the right to transfer teachers within a school system and to abolish positions, the actions cannot be justified on the ground of expediency or by the assertion that the changes are made for the good of the school system.

Broadly speaking, the transfer of a teacher to a type of position he is not qualified to fill or to work "substantially different" from that which he is prepared to perform, is generally considered equivalent to dismissal. Some difference of opinion, however, exists as to what constitutes "substantially different" work. For example, a primary teacher with tenure status cannot be transferred to upper-grade or high-school classes, whereas this teacher can be assigned to a different class in a primary division, that is, Grades I, II, and III. A decision by the Court of Appeals in California supports the view expressed in the foregoing example. Here the court recognized three divisions of the school system, namely, primary, grammar school, and high school, and ruled that compulsory transfer can be made within a division but not from one division to another.¹

When provision is made in school-board rules for the assignment of teachers at the will of the board, the teacher is bound thereby, unless the assignment is to a type of work for which he does not hold a certificate. In such a case the board cannot dismiss the teacher if he fails to qualify for the new assignment. The principle is illustrated by an Indiana case in which a teacher who was hired to teach domestic science, history, and zoology was subsequently assigned by the school trustee to teach German and English, subjects not included in the teacher's certificate. This teacher took an examination in the subjects specified but failed to make a passing grade, whereupon the trustee dismissed her. The court ruled that the trustee was guilty of violation of contract.²

Tenure for teachers in small rural schools

The proposal to extend tenure protection to the 121,311 teach-

¹ *Loehr v. Board of Education*, 12 Cal. App. 671, 108, 325.

² *Jefferson School Township v. Graves*, 150 N.E. (Ind.) 61.

ers employed in one-teacher rural schools throughout the United States has been very generally opposed in the past. The grounds for the opposition are (1) the low level of preparation of such teachers as compared with that of teachers in urban schools, (2) their unsatisfactory salary status, and (3) their short length of service in the same teaching position. Under present conditions it is therefore believed that other problems are of vastly greater importance to teachers in small rural schools than permanent tenure.

Recent data ¹ on the professional preparation of rural teachers collected from 944 rural counties scattered throughout the United States reveal evidence of improvement over the preparation revealed in earlier studies. While only 18 per cent of the teachers are reported as having less than two years of preparation beyond high school, 88 per cent still have less than four years of professional work. The situation is worse in some states than in others. For example, in six states the average training is less than two years in 50 per cent or more of the counties, whereas in twenty states the average is three years or more in from 50 to 100 per cent of the counties studied.

The data further show that in 40 per cent of the districts the average total experience of rural teachers is from one to five years and in 88 per cent, from one to ten years. In length of service in the same school district the average is less than three years in 23 per cent of the districts, between three and four years in 44 per cent of the districts, and between five and six years in 20 per cent of the districts. Fifteen per cent of these districts paid annual salaries averaging less than \$600 and 44 per cent paid between \$600 and \$900. Only 10 per cent of the districts paid salaries of \$1,200 or more.

Tenure for poorly qualified teachers such as those described will continue to be denied by the legislatures of most of the states.

¹ *Progress in Rural Education*, p. 159. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 4. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

In fact, it is difficult to see how professional organizations could advocate permanent tenure for such inadequately prepared groups. Probably all that can be expected in the way of security of position for such teachers is the legalization of continuing contracts which cannot be terminated by employing bodies unless notice of such action is given at least sixty days before the close of the school term.

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CHAPTER XVII

ECONOMIC SECURITY

THE economic status of the members of the teaching profession is a matter of great importance both to the members personally and to the social order which public education is intended to serve. The boards of education in local communities as agents of the social order should be vitally concerned about the economic problems of their professional employees. If teachers are unable to meet the economic demands made upon them, they tend to decline in professional worth. It is scarcely possible for a teacher to do good work in school when the income from his services is insufficient to provide for his personal needs. The situation is all the more critical when dependents must be supported. The problem of the teacher's economic security must therefore be solved before teaching can be regarded as a profession and before society can expect from the public schools the services which the social order requires.

Analysis of data on the economic status of teachers throughout the United States reveals conditions for serious public concern. Great inequalities exist in the salaries of teachers in different states and in different communities of the same state. These inequalities not only affect the economic security of large numbers of teachers but also the beneficiaries of their services — the pupils. It has been previously pointed out in another section of this book that the issue has become a national problem which cannot be solved by some of the states and localities concerned without federal assistance. Until such assistance is received the economic status of the teachers particularly in underprivileged areas will continue to be low.

SALARY STATUS OF TEACHERS

The most important factor in determining the economic security of a group of professional workers is their salary status. Remuneration must be adequate to provide the necessities of life: food, shelter, clothing, and transportation. It must also be sufficient to enable the teacher to meet other demands, such as cultural and recreational requirements, civic and religious obligations, personal health services, aid to dependents, and requirements of continued professional growth. The remuneration of the teacher should be sufficient to enable him to meet in a moderate way his various needs and demands. If because of inadequate pay he is compelled to reduce his budget for basic needs to a bare subsistence level and to omit some of the important demands, his professional standing and economic security are imperiled.

Throughout the history of education the remuneration of teachers has been out of balance with their economic needs. Salaries generally have been insufficient to enable the teacher adequately to provide for his needs and at the same time to meet the urgent demands of his position. Most teachers have been reticent about giving expression to their salary needs. If they talk about inadequate remuneration they are branded as selfish for thinking of themselves first and for placing the welfare of their pupils second. As a result, teachers as individuals have suffered greatly because of insufficient salaries. Only where they have organized as groups have they been able to voice their needs for adequate remuneration effectively. Even then recognition has not infrequently been obtained at the sacrifice of public opinion.

By and large, considerable progress has been made in recent years in improving the economic status of teachers. Salaries, while still extremely inadequate for certain professional groups, have attained for other groups a level sufficiently high to provide a reasonable degree of economic security.

Salaries of rural teachers

The salaries of rural teachers are generally lower than those of teachers in cities of the lowest population group. Unfortunately, rural teachers have received less attention from the public than has any other group. A deplorable condition in rural schools is usually regarded by the general public as affecting only a small number of teachers. The fact that more than half of the teachers, administrative officers, and supervisors of the public day schools of the United States and over half of the pupils are in rural areas is not fully appreciated by the general public.¹ Hence, conditions which normally would receive publicity in cities are often entirely overlooked in rural areas. Furthermore, the urban public which enjoys superior advantages of newspaper publicity tends to regard the rural school as a declining institution and as therefore not entitled to serious consideration. The economic status of rural teachers has consequently received less attention than that of city school teachers. Only recently has the National Education Association made a vigorous effort to disseminate information regarding the needs of this group of public-school teachers.

Data made available through a recent report on the Rural Teacher's Economic Status show the mean salaries paid to three groups of rural teachers in northern and southern states (Table 39). The findings reveal a level of remuneration for teaching services in town, village, and rural schools scarcely adequate for subsistence, not to mention other economic needs.

Salaries in city school systems

Following the World War the salaries of teachers in city school systems were very generally increased. The peak was reached during the depression year of 1930. Later in the depression

¹ The population of continental United States was classified in 1930 as 56.2 per cent urban and 43.8 per cent rural. Of the group under fifteen years of age, 18,269,682 lived in rural areas and 17,787,144 in urban areas. Of the total youth population under twenty years of age, 23,806,386 resided in rural territory and 23,202,555 in urban territory.

TABLE 39. MEAN ANNUAL SALARIES OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS
(WHITE) IN RURAL SCHOOLS IN NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN
STATES IN 1936-37 *

Type of School	Mean Annual Salaries				All
	Northern States		Southern States		
	Men	Women	Men	Women	
1-teacher schools	\$722	\$669	\$575	\$621	\$668
2-or-more-teacher schools	1,110	931	1,007	749	881
Towns under 2,500 popu- lation	1,323	965	1,240	806	1,005

* Adapted from *The Rural Teacher's Economic Status*, p. 9. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVII, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1939.

drastic cuts were made in school budgets. In some cities the reduction was as great as 40 per cent. The reductions required drastic cuts in the salaries of teachers. Since 1935 the reductions have been gradually restored, some cities even going above the previous peak. The median salaries paid at the present time to teachers in cities of five population groups are shown in Table 40.

Analysis of the data presented in Table 40 reveals an increase of approximately 100 per cent in salaries for elementary teachers from the smallest to the largest cities and of approximately 90 per cent for junior high school and high-school teachers. If the

TABLE 40. MEDIAN ANNUAL SALARIES PAID TO TEACHERS IN 3,155
CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN 1938-39 *

Population Group	Median Salaries		
	Elementary School	Junior High School	High School
Over 100,000	\$2,217	\$2,450	\$2,672
30,000 to 100,000	1,584	1,843	2,029
10,000 to 30,000	1,405	1,589	1,779
5,000 to 10,000	1,251	1,387	1,607
2,500 to 5,000	1,096	1,283	1,410

* Adapted from *Salaries of School Employees, 1938-39*, pp. 70-74. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1939.

salaries of teachers in each population group are compared with those of the next population group, the increase is found to be fairly regular until the cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population and those of over 100,000 are compared. Here the increases for the three groups of teachers average above 30 to 40 per cent.

Evidently the cost of living, which usually increases with the size of the city, has been an important factor in determining differences in teachers' salaries from one population group of cities to the next. Three other factors may also be influential, namely, (1) the greater ability of teachers in the larger cities through organization to secure recognition of their salary needs, (2) the general adoption by the larger cities of higher qualifications for admission to the profession, and (3) the tendency to use civil-service methods in the selection of teachers more frequently as the cities increase in size. Perhaps the last mentioned factor has been more important than any of the others in influencing the adoption of salary schedules designed to insure the teacher's economic security.

DEPENDENCY LOAD

One investigator who has studied the problem of the number of dependents for whom teachers must provide holds that while it is important for the teacher to face his own situation and plan for an adequate adjustment to it, it is also important for school administrators and the general public to realize the economic burden that the teacher is carrying and the influence which dependency load has on his total adjustment.¹ Boards of education and administrative officers who ignore the factor of dependency load in the construction of salary schedules evade an important issue in administration, namely, that of securing the greatest return in service for the money expended. For example, the size and char-

¹ Theresa P. Pyle, *The Teacher's Dependency Load*, pp. 1-2. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 782. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

Teachers in rural communities

Data collected from 9,822 teachers (white) in rural communities,¹ that is, towns under 2,500 population, villages, consolidated schools in the open country, and one-teacher country schools, reveal that approximately one-fourth of the number of teachers were men and three-fourths were women. Nearly two-thirds of the men and about one-fifth of the women were married. The median dependency load of the single men and the single women was about the same, being approximately one-half of a dependency unit.² The median load of the married men was 2.5 dependency units and of the married women 1.2 such units. The median dependency load of all the men was 1.9 units and of all the women 0.8 of a unit.

By including the teachers themselves with their dependency loads and by dividing the average salaries received by the average dependency units for each type of teacher, it is found that the part of the teacher's annual salary available for each person dependent or partially dependent on it amounts to \$627 for single men, \$495 for single women, \$399 for married men, and \$450 for married women. Obviously, under such conditions it is impossible for the average rural teacher regardless of sex or marital status to look forward with any assurance to economic security on the remuneration received for professional services. It is therefore clear that before professional and economic security can be provided for this group of teachers considerable improvement must be made in their salaries.

Negro teachers in rural schools

A rural school group that has received little attention in the past is that made up of Negro teachers in segregated schools. The professional and economic status of this group of teachers is generally known to be low. Available information shows that the

¹ *The Rural Teacher's Economic Status*, op. cit., p. 6.

² A dependency unit is defined as one wholly dependent person or two partially dependent persons.

manner in which he fulfills the job requirements set by system. If a teacher's dependency problems induce a reflection, and serious concern, his personality is almost reflect disturbances in his school relations. Improved school relations can scarcely be effected unless changes induced in the individual's home problems. Since the dependency load have such an important bearing on the logical adjustments of the teacher, the problem requires careful consideration of both teachers and administrators. Some attention has been given to the problem in the distribution of salary schedules in certain cities through the differentials for men teachers in divisions of the school where men teachers are greatly desired. These difficulties are justified largely on the ground of dependency load. The practice is evoked from those who advocate the schedule¹ which provides equal pay for equal training since regardless of level of assignment. While the schedule may contribute to the solution of the problem of dependency load of certain women teachers whose salary thereby been increased, the plan does not take into consideration the dependency load of the individual teacher. The mere fact that a teacher does or does not have or that his dependency load is heavy or light may be a important influence on the salary of the individual. If dependency load may have retarded the teacher's training, thus restricting his employment to schools with only low salaries, or it may prevent him from meeting the demands of dress, recreation, and cultural development in securing employment in school systems which pay for but which demand superior personal qualifications of teachers. The factor of dependency load thus operates seriously for teachers in the low-salaried positions.

¹ The single-salary schedule is discussed fully on pages 496-

income of this group from salary is lower and the dependency load higher than are those of white teachers in rural schools. Reports¹ from 1,103 women and 2,621 men reveal a dependency load of 1.8 units for single men, 2.1 units for single women, 3.5 units for married men, and 2.4 units for married women. The proportional part of the teacher's salary available for the support of each dependency unit including self is found to be only \$229 in the case of single men, \$152 for single women, \$131 for married men, and \$127 for married women.²

Even after allowance is made for the differences which are claimed to exist in the standards of living of white and Negro teachers in rural schools, the fact remains that remuneration of the Negroes is so low that economic security is virtually precluded. This situation has become a problem of national concern.

Teachers in city systems

A study³ based on reports from 2,358 teachers in city systems, of whom 1,955 were single women and 403 were married men, revealed a difference in the dependency load of single women and married men of 1.3 units. The average dependency units including self for which the salary of the single woman had to provide was 2.4; the comparable load of the married man was 3.7. The part of the city teacher's salary available for each dependent person in the case of a single woman was on the average \$770, and in the case of a married man, \$608. These averages would naturally be greatly diminished for teachers in small cities (2,500 to 5,000 population) where the average annual salary for 18,389 men and women teachers in elementary schools, junior high

¹ *Teachers in Rural Communities*, pp. 91, 100. Washington: Committee on the Economic Status of the Rural Teacher, National Education Association, 1939.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 91, 100.

³ *The Teacher's Economic Position: Facts and Recommendations*, p. 15. Washington: Report of the Committee on the Economic Status of the Teacher of the National Education Association, 1935.

schools, and high schools in 1940 was only \$1,325.¹ Here the average amount available for each dependent is entirely too low to provide the economic security which a professional person and his dependents require.

DEMANDS ON TEACHER'S INCOME

The adequacy of a teacher's salary cannot be appraised in general terms. Other earnings and income must be considered as well as the various financial demands that must be met. Analysis of total income and expenditures thus provides the only basis of determining a teacher's financial status and of evaluating his economic security.

The various investigations of the income and expenditures of teachers made by the National Education Association provide valuable information for the consideration of teachers. By studying these findings, teachers may be helped in planning their financial programs.

The following outline provides the basis for a critical study of income and expenditures:

A. INCOME

1. Money received as salary for school services (including any salary paid into, or deducted for, a teacher's retirement or insurance fund).
2. Estimated money value of commodities received as partial payment for school services.
3. Earnings from other kinds of work (including estimated money value of commodities produced for one's own consumption).
4. Income contributed by relatives living in same household

¹ Computed from data reported in *Special Salary Tabulations*, p. 15. Tabulations III-A, IV-A, and V-A. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1941.

with teacher (including money value of commodities received from such relatives).

5. Other current income (not including money borrowed or withdrawn from savings).

B. EXPENDITURES

1. Food — All meals and food supplies for the teacher and dependents living with him.

2. Housing — Rent for living quarters of the teacher and dependents living with him; or taxes, interest, and upkeep if he owned his home or payment on principal if buying a home.

3. Clothing — Purchase, repair, and cleaning of clothing for teacher and his dependents.

4. Health — Medical and dental care, hospital or nursing service, medicines, health appliances, and accident or health insurance for the teacher and his dependents.

5. Transportation and travel — Carfare, railway or bus fare, and payments for purchase and operation of automobile for the teacher and his dependents.

6. Money to dependents living with the teacher and dependent children, parents, brothers or sisters living elsewhere.

7. Miscellaneous personal items (other than those listed above and below) including barber service, toilet articles, tobacco, stationery, children's toys, etc., for the teacher and his dependents.

8. Professional activities — Professional literature, membership in professional organizations, professional courses, etc.

9. Recreation and nonprofessional education — All social, recreational, and educational expenses for the teacher and his dependents.

10. Donations to nondependents — To persons not dependent on the teacher, and to churches, charitable institutions, and relief or character-building agencies.

11. School or classroom supplies — Furnished at the teacher's expense because of the school district's failure to provide them.

12. Surplus — Excess of mean total income over the sum of mean current expenditures.

Importance of personal budgeting

The foregoing analysis of income and expenditures should prove helpful to teachers in personal budgeting. When salaries are low budgeting is necessary as a means of maintaining personal solvency. Especially is budgeting important for teachers, since teaching is ordinarily a seasonal occupation; that is, the teacher receives pay only for eight to ten months in the year. Inasmuch as the expenses of the teacher continue during the vacation months, a budget plan should be adopted that will enable the teacher to save a portion of his salary each month for the vacation period. Some teachers meet the problem through the establishment of a savings account which is systematically built up during the months in which salary is received. This account is drawn upon during the months in which salary is not received.

Other teachers resort to borrowing to tide themselves over from one school year to another. That far too many teachers follow this practice is revealed by data reported by the National Education Association in which 40 per cent of 9,039 rural teachers¹ reported personal indebtedness other than real estate mortgages. Obviously, indebtedness at times is unavoidable for some teachers, but when so large a percentage resorts to borrowing it is evident that better financial practices than are now followed should be developed.

Still other teachers seek to secure vacation employment to supplement their income. Various jobs are attempted — some with moderate success and others with little success. From these efforts to increase income, little, if any, professional gain is received and in most cases the earnings are inadequate for the effort expended. Since the data on the outside earnings of teachers show that such earnings tend to increase as salaries increase,² it is evident that the need for supplementing income is regarded as a

¹ *The Rural Teacher's Economic Status*, op. cit., p. 25.

² *Ibid.*, p. 7.

problem by many teachers at all salary levels. Perhaps the need is accentuated by the two conditions previously mentioned, namely, (1) the payment of salaries to teachers only for the months of the year in which they are employed, and (2) the failure of many teachers to practice careful budgeting of income and expenditures.

The practice of contracting obligations in excess of income should be generally discouraged. Expenditures should be planned as far as possible in the light of one's income. The teacher who follows this advice will usually find it unnecessary to supplement his salary regularly with outside earnings during vacation periods or to go in debt except in emergencies.

Income of teachers in rural schools

The belief very commonly prevails that the income outside of salary of teachers in rural schools is relatively small, since such teachers as a group are not considered generally employable in occupations other than teaching. This belief is strongly supported by the findings of the Committee on the Economic Status of the Rural Teacher, which found that the salary received for teaching accounted for 93.4 per cent of the total earnings of the single women teachers and 90.6 per cent of the total earnings of the single men. The income from sources outside of salary is somewhat greater for married teachers than for single teachers, although when both groups are merged it is found that salary accounts for 89.7 per cent of the total earnings of all types of rural teachers.¹ It is therefore clear that the salary received by the rural teacher is the major factor in determining his economic security.

In the case of Negro teachers in rural schools a larger part (approximately 20 per cent) of the income needed to provide for current expenses must come from sources other than salary, since the mean salary of Negro teachers is less than half that of white teachers.²

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

² *Teachers in Rural Communities*, *op. cit.*, p. 100.

Expenses of teachers in rural schools

Analysis of the expenses of rural teachers shows that between 70 and 75 per cent of their annual income goes for necessities, such as food, housing, clothing, health, transportation, money to dependents, and miscellaneous personal items. Of the remainder, about 6 per cent is expended for professional education; another 6 per cent is used for donations to nondependent persons, churches, charitable institutions, and school and classroom supplies; and around 15 per cent constitutes the surplus. In the case of 484 teachers in single-room country schools, this surplus averaged \$102. For 383 teachers in rural schools employing two or more teachers, the average surplus was \$100; for 840 teachers in towns under 2,500 population the average surplus amounted to \$139. For the Negro teachers the year usually ended with a deficit.

Among the women teachers (white) considerable differences in the standards of living are found, depending on the level of salary and the social status of the particular teacher. Single women teachers are easily grouped into three classifications, namely, (1) those who live with relatives, (2) those who board, and (3) those who live in rented homes. For these three types, the expenses of food, housing, and house operation vary greatly. The first type uses 28.6 per cent of her annual income for the expenses indicated; the second, 33.9 per cent; and the third, 47.7 per cent. The increase in living costs is met through a decrease in annual savings, the percentages of savings for the three types of teachers being 16.8 per cent, 14.4 per cent, and 7.3 per cent, respectively.

Income of city school teachers

Ninety-four per cent of the annual income of single women teachers in city school systems comes from salary. The teachers in the lower salary brackets of this group obtain 98.7 per cent of their income from salary, whereas those in the higher brackets receive only 79.3 per cent of their income from salary. The data indicate that a source of income to the higher-salaried group is

earnings from investments aggregating 13.5 per cent. Married men serving as teachers in city school systems receive 93.6 per cent of their income from salary, approximately 5 per cent less than the percentage received by the single women. In the group with salaries in the lower brackets, the income derived from salary is 95.8 per cent of the total; in the higher brackets the percentage of income derived from salary is 83.7. The findings for the men also reveal that those with the highest salary have a larger percentage of income from outside earnings than those with lower salaries. Thus, it is clear that the earnings of teachers from investments are determined very largely by the level of salaries.

Expenses of city school teachers

The data presented in Table 41 reveal how two types of city school teachers, namely, the single woman who lives with relatives and the married man who lives in a rented house, spend their annual income. The man earns \$436 more than the woman, but spends \$603 more for the necessary items of food, rent, and house operation. For the other items, the expenditures do not differ greatly. In surplus at the end of the year the woman

TABLE 41. PURPOSES FOR WHICH SINGLE WOMEN AND MARRIED MEN TEACHING IN CITY SYSTEMS USE THEIR INCOME *

Items of Expense	Single Woman Teacher Living with Relatives	Married Man Teacher Renting Home
Food, rent, and house operation...	\$559	\$1,163
Clothing.....	204	189
Health.....	75	123
Transportation.....	161	187
Aid to dependents.....	91	58
Education and recreation.....	130	146
Gifts and donations.....	154	93
Miscellaneous personal items.....	72	87
Savings.....	247	144
Taxes and interest.....	36	39
Total expenditures.....	\$1,729	\$2,229

* Adapted from *The Teacher's Economic Position*, op. cit., p. 30.

teacher has almost twice the amount possessed by the man.

Since the dependency units to be supported by the salary of the man are approximately twice those supported by the salary of the woman, it is apparent that the standards of living of the woman and her dependents are superior to those of the man and his dependents. If the standards of the man are lower than he is willing indefinitely to accept, he is compelled to seek promotion within the system in which he is employed or to find ways of supplementing his present salary. Perhaps in many cases increase in salary can be obtained only through transfer to another profession or occupation.

Considerable light is thrown on the standards of living of single women teachers in city school systems by examining their expenditures at different salary levels. Available data for teachers at five different levels of income show that the amount spent for six specific items, namely, food, rent, house operation, clothing, health, and transportation rises rapidly from the lowest level to the highest level, although the percentage of total income expended gradually declines. The teachers whose total income is under \$1,500 spend \$800 annually for the items enumerated, or 62.6 per cent of their income. Those with incomes between \$1,500 and \$1,999 spend \$1,020, or 58.2 per cent; those with incomes between \$2,000 and \$2,499 spend \$1,206, or 54.3 per cent; those with incomes between \$2,500 and \$2,999 spend \$1,341, or 49.2 per cent; and those with incomes of \$3,000 and over spend \$1,663, or 46.1 per cent. The findings indicate an increase in living standards with each advance made in income level while at the same time an increasing percentage of total income is reserved for educational and recreational purposes, aid to dependents, gifts, donations, and savings.

Savings, or the surplus of annual income over expenditures increase markedly from lowest to highest salary level. The annual savings of teachers in the lowest salary level are only \$116, whereas for teachers in the highest salary level the annual savings are \$993. The data on savings show that the economic security of

the single woman teacher in city school systems is materially improved with each advance in salary.

Comparable data for single and married men teachers in city systems are not available. However, there is little doubt but that the findings would be much the same if analyses of income and expenditures similar to those that were made for the women teachers could be formulated.

NET ASSETS IN RELATION TO LENGTH OF SERVICE

The economic security of the teacher can be evaluated in part by the net accumulation of property in relation to the period of school service. After ten, twenty, or thirty years of professional service, is the property of the teacher such that he is not completely dependent on school salary? The evidence presented in Table 42 indicates a somewhat better economic status for city teachers than for rural teachers, yet the accumulated savings at the end of a lifetime of service for city teachers are too meager to provide a sufficient annuity for declining years. The group of men teachers in city school systems with the largest mean assets still possess only a little more than half of the assets recommended

TABLE 42. NET ECONOMIC ASSETS OF TEACHERS (WHITE) IN CITY AND RURAL SCHOOLS IN RELATION TO LENGTH OF SCHOOL SERVICE *

Teachers	Period of School Service			
	1-10 Years	11-20 Years	21-30 Years	31-40 Years
Women teachers in city school systems	\$1,807	\$4,225	\$6,248	\$9,077
Men teachers in city school systems	2,727	5,496	7,414	16,767
Women teachers in rural schools	897	1,891	3,210	3,873
Men teachers in rural schools	947	2,356	3,794	4,024

* *The Teacher's Economic Position*, op. cit., p. 43, and *Teachers in Rural Communities*, op. cit., p. 62.

by the American Provident Society as a reserve sufficient to provide a life annuity at sixty years of age of \$2,155 per year.¹

PROVISIONS FOR LIFE INSURANCE

Closely related to the problem of dependency load is the amount of life insurance which should be carried by teachers as protection for dependents. Concerning the amount of insurance a teacher should carry, it is difficult to generalize. Generally speaking, the greater the dependency load of a teacher, the greater protection the teacher should provide. Teachers with low salaries and heavy dependency loads can in many cases carry only a negligible amount of insurance. On the contrary, teachers with reasonably adequate salaries and low dependency loads can carry a fair amount of insurance.

Insurance carried by rural teachers

Data collected by the Committee on the Economic Status of the Rural Teacher reveal the amount of life insurance carried by 9,822 white teachers employed in rural communities. No insurance is carried by over one-third of these teachers (37.5 per cent). The amount of insurance carried by the rest of the group ranges from less than \$1,000 to \$5,000 or more. The average amount carried is only \$1,454.

In the light of the information previously submitted regarding mean salaries and dependency loads it is surprising to find the group carrying as much insurance as its members actually do. On the basis of the number of dependency units each type of teacher has to protect through insurance, the single men teachers provide the largest amount of protection, \$1,643. The married men with larger salaries and more dependency units provide only \$1,240 of insurance per unit to be protected. Comparable data for single and married women teachers reveal averages of \$986 and \$1,115, respectively.

¹ Charles M. de Forest and Others, *Are You as Old Financially as in Years? Make Sure*, p. 81. New York: American Provident Society, Inc., 1932.

Teachers in city school systems

Information for city school teachers is not available to make possible a complete comparison with teachers of rural communities regarding the mean amount of life insurance carried. However, comparison can be made for single women and married men. The mean amount carried by the single women teachers in city schools is approximately 9 times the amount carried by the single women teachers in the rural schools (\$3,429 to \$986). The mean amount carried by the married men teachers of the city group exceeds that of the rural group 2.3 times (\$7,170 to \$3,101).

The findings indicate that the married men teachers in both city and rural schools regardless of salary received make a much greater effort to provide protection for dependents through life insurance than do the single women teachers. It is doubtful whether either group provides as much insurance as its dependency load warrants.

EFFORTS TO IMPROVE ECONOMIC SECURITY

The difference between the lowest income and highest income received by teachers is very great. Some teachers receive incomes of less than \$300 per year while others may receive incomes of \$5,000 a year or more. The estimated average income of all the classroom teachers in the public schools of the United States in 1939-40 was approximately \$1,360 per year.¹ Below and above this average are two distinct groups of teachers which differ markedly in economic security. The lower group must necessarily practice low standards of living, provide meagerly for dependents, use only a small part of income for professional improvement and recreation, and save only a small percentage of what is earned. The upper group can be more generous in providing for basic needs and in meeting community demands. The upper 25

¹ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 61. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

per cent of the entire group can enjoy economic advantages that are not possible for teachers whose incomes are below the 50th percentile point.

From the statement just made it is apparent that the large majority of teachers do not have economic security for themselves and dependents. How to meet their needs is a problem in administration which merits the thoughtful consideration of all persons interested in the improvement of public education. Evidently there is little possibility of a general increase in salaries sufficient to remove the hazards of economic insecurity.

MINIMUM SALARY LEGISLATION

Nearly half of the states have enacted minimum salary laws that is, laws specifying minimum salaries below which local school officers cannot go in hiring teachers. The laws are intended primarily to aid rural teachers, whose salaries are generally low. Such legislation is not new, since five states enacted minimum salary laws prior to 1904. Some of the more recent enactments of state legislatures provide a minimum salary schedule for all types of teachers. The state of Pennsylvania has enacted legislation which establishes a minimum schedule for teachers of different grade levels in each of four classes of districts and fixes the number and amount of annual increments beyond the minimum for each grade level and each class of district.¹ Some states have set up minimum programs of education and established minimum salary schedules, guaranteeing the difference between the salaries promised and the part of the salaries raised by the local units which comply with the conditions specified in the minimum program. A few states, namely, Delaware, Indiana, Maryland, North Carolina, and West Virginia, guarantee through state funds the minimum salaries which are legally prescribed.

¹ First-class districts have over 500,000 population; second-class districts, 30,000 to 500,000 population; third-class districts, 5,000 to 30,000 population; and fourth-class districts, under 5,000 population. For details see Bulletin 74, Research Circular No. 11, 1939. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Department of Public Instruction. Pp. 27.

The main purpose of minimum-salary laws is the improvement of teachers. The laws usually prescribe the minimum training that must be possessed by teachers to benefit from the minimum-salary schedule established. A secondary purpose of minimum-salary legislation is the protection of qualified teachers from the parsimonious practices of boards of education which are unwilling to pay adequate salaries. It is not the intent of such legislation to discourage local units from paying salaries above the minimum, although in some instances the legislation for a time has tended to operate that way. The enactment of such legislation should raise the mean income of the teachers of the state which enacts the law. This result is accomplished not merely through the increase in salaries which were formerly below the state minimum but also through a general upward trend of salaries brought about by the improvement in qualifications which necessarily follows the enactment of minimum-salary legislation.

The following are considered by the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association to be the essential features of a minimum-salary law:

1. A minimum-salary law should be state-wide in its scope; to be effective where needed most, no exception should be permitted.
2. Local districts should be entirely free to exceed the state minimum and by administrative policy should be encouraged to do so.
3. Training and experience should be recognized in the state minimum-salary standards as bases for variation in teachers' salaries.
4. A proper plan of state school support greatly assists in the maintenance of defensible minimum-salary standards.
5. The method of enforcement should be stated in the law.

ADOPTION OF SINGLE-SALARY SCHEDULE

The term "single-salary schedule" is applied to any salary plan which undertakes to adjust the compensation of teachers on the

basis of training and experience without regard to sex or to the grade or grades to which the teacher is assigned. Under the plan a woman teacher with a bachelor's degree from an accredited college and with ten years of successful experience receives the same compensation for teaching the first grade in an elementary school as a man teacher with equal training and experience receives for teaching physics in the twelfth grade of a senior high school. The idea underlying the single-salary schedule is often stated as "equal pay for equivalent services." The assumption is that good teaching is as important at one grade level as at another grade level and that the remuneration for such teaching should be adjusted on the basis of the professional preparation of the teacher and his devotion and success to his profession as determined by the length of teaching experience.

The incorporation of the single-salary plan in salary schedules is a development of the last twenty years. It is found chiefly in middle-sized and large cities. The most recent data available on salary schedules show that 34.8 per cent of the school systems in cities over 30,000 in population have adopted the single-salary plan based on preparation and experience¹ and that 75 per cent of the school systems in the same group of cities no longer provide differentials for men teachers.²

Considerable doubt exists as to whether the adoption of the single-salary plan by a school system will actually increase the average salary of the teachers of the system. Many teachers will undoubtedly be stimulated to increase their academic and professional qualifications to secure the regular increments in salary made possible by the provisions for automatic increases on the basis of additional training and experience. Since the budget for salaries in a school system is not likely to change greatly from year to year, the increases provided by a single-salary schedule must usually be spread over a number of years to prevent large

¹ *Progress and Problems in Equal Pay for Equal Work*, p. 12. Washington Committee on Equal Opportunity of the National Education Association, 1939

² *Ibid.*, p. 22.

additions to the budget in any one fiscal year. Furthermore, the maximum is placed low enough so that the members of the present staff whose qualifications and salaries are regarded as adequate do not secure further benefits through automatic increases. Thus, it is seen that the adoption of the single-salary schedule by a school system, while stimulating growth at the lower end and middle of the distribution of the staff of teachers, may actually discourage further growth on the part of members who at the time of adoption already possess the qualifications and experience desired.

In the administration of single-salary schedules, especially in school systems with limited financial resources, the tendency is to introduce controls of various kinds to serve as brakes on the salary budget. For example, a replacement policy may be adopted requiring the filling of vacancies with teachers of little training and experience. This practice while effective in budgetary control necessitates increased supervision.

THE TWELVE-MONTH PLAN OF PAYING SALARIES

Individuals with limited income usually find that their economic welfare is improved through careful budgeting of expenditures and the keeping of accurate accounts. This practice is especially important for teachers who find it difficult to live within their incomes. The ease with which indebtedness may be incurred encourages many teachers to resort to borrowing when in need. If this program is carried on from year to year, the individual may discover before he is fully aware that he is living on anticipated income with a considerable part of his current earnings going into interest obligations.

In order to avert the situation just described, which is by no means uncommon, administrative officers and many teachers have advocated the payment of salaries on the twelve-month basis. The arguments advanced in behalf of the plan are: (1) that it enables teachers to budget their expenditures more successfully;

(2) that it tends to eliminate borrowing and resulting embarrassment both to teacher and board of education; (3) that it transforms teaching from a seasonal occupation to a full-time job; and (4) that it contributes to the teacher's economic security by placing at his disposal a fixed part of his salary at regular intervals throughout the calendar year.

The payment of salaries on the twelve-month basis does not affect the total salary of the teacher or the salary budget of the school system desiring to make use of the plan. Moreover, the Research Division of the National Education Association has pointed out that in most of the states the plan can be adopted by a school district without changes in present school laws.¹ The plan is growing in favor with both teachers and administrative officers in city school systems is evidenced by the fact that in a study of 2,543 cities of all sizes, 39.3 per cent reported its use in 1939. In a similar study involving 1,487 cities in 1931 only 14.6 per cent reported its use.²

The chief objection to the payment of salaries in 12 monthly installments instead of the customary 8, 9, or 10 is raised by boards of education on the ground that extra clerical work and accounting are involved in getting out summer payrolls and in mailing the checks to the teachers. This objection is largely overcome by the advantage which accrues to the boards through the spreading of payroll obligations over a greater period of time and the resulting decrease in interest charges.

CREDIT UNIONS

Teachers in many systems have undertaken to improve their economic security through co-operation in solving certain economic problems, such as the safe investment of small savings and

¹ "The Twelve-Month Plan of Paying Teachers' Salaries," p. 1. Educational Research Service, Circular No. 10. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, November, 1939.

² *Ibid.*, p. 4.

the arrangements for borrowing without exorbitant interest rates when funds are needed in excess of income. Both of the foregoing problems are at present satisfactorily solved by the establishment of the Teachers' Credit Union, a co-operative savings and loan organization of a banking nature organized and conducted exclusively for the benefit of its members. Such organizations have been legalized by the Federal Government and by most of the states as voluntary mutual-aid associations, the membership usually being limited to persons in a single occupational group.

Membership in credit unions has enabled teachers in need to avoid the personal humiliation of requesting loans from friends and the excessive interest rates of loan organizations. Besides, the earnings on the invested savings usually range from six to seven per cent.

GROUP INSURANCE

In order to provide protection for dependents, teachers organizations in some states and in many cities have arranged with insurance companies for group insurance. Through membership in the teacher group an individual teacher is entitled to a policy which is provided without medical examination and at a somewhat lower rate than is possible under the individual insurance plan. The policy usually stipulates payments for a fixed term of years ending, for example, at age sixty or sixty-five. The amount of the insurance to which an individual is entitled is determined by the age of the member at the time the plan goes into effect. Periodic changes are made in the rate in accordance with the member's age. Another type of policy is that in which the face amount fluctuates with the anticipated needs of protection for dependents of the individuals who constitute the group.

An example of the contract which is subject to change in rate is that written for members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Policies of \$3,000 are written for

TABLE 43. GROUP-INSURANCE SCHEDULE FOR MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Age	Amount of Policy	Rate per each \$1,000
Up to 40.....	\$3,000	\$9.00
41 to 47.....	3,000	12.00
48 to 50.....	1,500	12.00
51 to 55.....	1,500	18.00
56 to 60.....	1,500	27.00
61.....	1,500	32.82
62.....	1,500	35.45
63.....	1,500	38.33
64.....	1,500	41.44
65.....	1,500	44.83

members under forty-seven years of age and policies of \$1,500 for members over that age. New policies are not written for members who have attained the age of sixty-five but insurance written before that age can be kept in force as long as a member is employed by an organized system of education or by an educational institution. Rates for members over age sixty-five continue to increase like the rates of members sixty-one to sixty-five. The following table gives the rates for members in the different age groups.

The following group-insurance plan is provided by a university which has a compulsory retirement system but which desires to encourage its employees to provide the maximum protection for dependents. This university carries a master group policy for its instructional staff for which each member is charged a fixed amount. The premium for an individual is unchanged throughout the life of the policy, which is terminated at retirement, or age sixty-five. The total premium is paid by the university which underwrites the difference between the amount of this premium and the total premiums collected from the members of the insured group. The premium of each member is deducted from his monthly salary. The amount of the policy fluctuates with the age of the member according to the schedule given in Table 44. The advantage of the plan is its flexibility in meeting the needs for protection of minor dependents.

TABLE 44. GROUP-INSURANCE SCHEDULE FOR MEMBERS OF A
UNIVERSITY FACULTY

Age	Amount
Below age 25.....	\$3,000
Age 25 to 29.....	5,000
Age 30 to 39.....	7,000
Age 40 to 49.....	5,000
Age 50 to 59.....	4,000
Age 60 to 65.....	3,000
Contract ends at 65	

Some teacher groups have secured a combination policy which provides both life and disability insurance. The rates on such insurance are naturally higher than on policies which provide insurance on life only. Other groups adopt a salary-savings plan whereby the board of education deducts a fixed amount from the monthly salary of the employee and in some instances may supplement the amount to provide an annuity or disability income for the members as well as a death benefit for their dependents. A total deposit of \$8 per month in the case of a male teacher who enters into contract for the insurance at age thirty, would provide a monthly income, including dividends, of approximately \$35 per month after retirement at age sixty-five. In event of death before the annuity payments begin the beneficiary would receive total payment, including dividends, ranging from \$2,572 to \$4,962, paid in one sum or as a monthly income. The total payments made from the individual's salary over the period of thirty-five years would be \$3,360.

Groups of teachers can secure group insurance without the participation of the board of education in the monthly collection of premiums. The plan which appears to work best, however, is that under which premiums are paid by the board through monthly deductions from salary.

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CHAPTER XVIII

SOCIAL SECURITY

THE term social security is a recent addition to the vocabulary of American citizens. Prior to 1935 when the Seventy-Fourth Congress passed the Social Security Act, people generally had thought little about the possibilities of government provision of aid for the needy aged, the needy blind, and dependent children. Unemployment and old-age insurance under government sponsorship were scarcely considered possible. Today social security affects the lives of millions of American citizens. Arthur J. Altmeyer, Chairman of the Social Security Board for the administration of the Federal Social Security Act, has written on this subject as follows:

More than 45 million wage earners have applied for accounts under the old-age insurance program and have begun to build up rights to an income when their working years are over; 27½ million wage earners are covered by unemployment compensation laws in operation in all states, and some \$660,000,000 in benefits has gone to those temporarily unemployed since the program became effective. At the same time public employment services have grown and expanded in connection with job insurance operations. Under the public assistance programs some 2½ million of the needy are now receiving regular monthly cash allowances. And more adequate public-health programs, better health and welfare services for mothers and children, better care for crippled children, and increased facilities for the vocational rehabilitation of handicapped and disabled men and women have been provided throughout the country.

Before the enactment of the Social Security Law, public opinion

Arthur J. Altmeyer, "The New Social Security Program," *School Life*, XXV (January, 1940), 103.

in support of social security for teachers was by no means strong. In spite of considerable opposition, pension systems varying in merit had been enacted into law in thirty-nine states. The general opposition to such legislation was based on the belief of a considerable proportion of American citizens that the individual through his own efforts should build up a sufficient surplus to provide security for himself and his dependents in periods of adversity and in old age. Despite the fact that it was generally known that teachers' salaries were too low to permit the accumulation of a sufficient surplus to provide security, the unfriendly attitude toward pensions for superannuated teachers tended to prevail. The result of the lack of provisions for the social security of teachers in some of the states and of inadequate provisions in other states has been the retention of many teachers in positions long after decline in efficiency has set in.

PROBLEMS CREATED BY SOCIAL INSECURITY

The problems created by the failure to provide social security for teachers are aptly illustrated by the conditions reported in a recent survey of a large city in a state which has made no provisions for the retirement of teachers. In this city one out of every nine teachers employed at the time of the survey was sixty-five years of age or older. A comparison of 126 teachers who were over seventy years of age with an equal number of teachers between forty-five years and fifty years of age showed that the older group was absent twice as much per year as the younger group and received a supervisory rating 5 per cent lower. The survey in commenting on the situation stated:

Though there are numerous exceptions, persons at this age have generally passed their peak of physical and mental efficiency. It is unfair to the public which supports the schools and to children to keep teachers on the job long after they are able to do their best work. To do so when there is a supply of young and capable teachers available is certainly inefficient and indefensible. Such a policy also affects the

morale of the entire system. Because many of the higher positions are held by older people, the avenues of advancement are clogged and the younger teachers become discouraged about improving themselves professionally. Moreover, a profession in which such conditions exist cannot hope to attract the energetic and capable young people that it needs.¹

Other teacher problems created because of social insecurity are (1) the inability to make appropriate use of vacation periods for professional study and cultural advantages or sabbatical leaves for continued professional development and health improvement, (2) the tendency to disregard needs for adequate temporary leaves of absence for physical recuperation or convalescence, and (3) the necessity of adopting living standards which prevent the teacher from rendering the maximum service in his position. These problems will remain unsolved for many teachers until the fears of insecurity are removed and provisions are made to safeguard their social welfare.

IMPORTANCE OF RETIREMENT PROVISIONS

The maintenance of a superior teaching staff in any school system depends as much on proper retirement as on efficient recruitment. In most school systems some teachers are usually found who have become enfeebled through old age and have declined greatly in efficiency. Others because of accident or disease may have become too disabled to render acceptable service. These teachers because of insufficient savings cannot retire without becoming charges on relatives or being reduced to the status of paupers. To compel them to resign under these conditions after years of faithful service is to disregard human considerations. Boards of education when confronted with such situations usually find that their supporting communities refuse to approve a forced retirement if the teacher involved is thereby reduced to poverty and want.

¹ A Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of St. Louis, Missouri, pp. 346-47. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

Efforts of teachers to provide for self-retirement

The earliest efforts to provide for teacher retirement were made by teachers themselves. Some teachers employed in city school systems prior to the earliest legislation on retirement organized semi-charitable and mutual-benefit societies to provide aid to needy members of their groups. These organizations were entirely voluntary. Public appropriations for the purpose were not even considered by these early groups which were attempting to aid unfortunate associates in obtaining at least a small measure of social security.

Laws were sought to legalize the organizations in states where these voluntary benefit associations were formed. The laws provided that members of the associations might be assessed whenever it was necessary to secure the funds needed to provide the benefits established in the legislative enactment. No thought had been given to the actuarial soundness of the organizations. The associations were of the same type as the assessment insurance organizations which attempted to meet their claims out of current income and came to grief when death claims began to exceed the amount received from regular assessments.

The failure of most of these early voluntary associations merely served to accentuate the demand for pension benefits for aged or incapacitated members of the teaching profession. This demand was called to the attention of the public by the National Education Association in 1891 through the adoption of the following resolution:

Justice, as well as the best public service, requires the retirement and pensioning of teachers after a service of thirty years, and upon carefully devised conditions. We recommend the enactment of laws in the several States to permit and to regulate the retirement and pensioning of professional teachers.¹

This resolution marked the beginning of a long campaign in the interests of social security for teachers. The first state to enact

¹ "Report of Committee on Resolutions," *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Educational Association* (1891), 391.

legislation designed to establish a pension fund for teachers was New York (1894). The legislation affected only the teachers of New York City and the resources of the fund were to be provided from deductions made from the pay of teachers when they were absent. This victory for the teachers was probably accomplished by obscuring the issue; it was generally understood that the fund would be secured from the teachers, whereas it really came from public revenue. The administration of the fund was placed in the hands of the board of education and the custody of the fund was given to the comptroller of the city.

The apparent progress made by the teachers of New York City led other large cities to seek similar legislation. Within the next two years, at least eight other funds were established. In every case participation in any future benefits from the fund involved an annual contribution to it of one per cent of the member's salary. In two cities, namely, San Francisco and St. Louis, and in the state of New Jersey membership was voluntary. In Brooklyn, Buffalo, Chicago, Cincinnati, and Detroit membership was compulsory.

The actuarial unsoundness of these funds was known from the start by well-informed persons. As a result seldom more than half of the teachers of a school system under the voluntary plan became members of the retirement system. The funds quickly fell below the demands made upon them. The financial assistance expected from public-spirited donors failed to come in and the organizations were compelled to seek relief from legislatures. It was clear that the retirement funds had to receive government support if they were to accomplish the purposes for which they had been established.

Public support for teacher retirement

Attempts of different types were made to secure contributions from school boards until finally it became clear that the public must share equally with the teachers the burden of providing social security for aged and disabled teachers. It also gradually

became apparent that in providing support for retirement funds the public was underwriting the efficiency of the schools. The recognition by the public of its own interest in the retirement of teachers led to the establishment of state pension systems in which funds were provided through equal contributions by teachers and public, and organization and administration were controlled by actuarial principles.

By 1910 four state and thirty-eight local retirement systems had been established, although not all were actuarially sound. The progress made, however, was such that it was possible to forecast the trend of the retirement movement for teachers in the public school systems of the United States. In 1937, 33 of the 48 states had enacted teacher retirement and pension laws with state-wide provisions, 29 of which are of the joint-contributory type.¹

Present provisions for teacher retirement

Under the legislation in force in 1940 it is estimated that 50 per cent of the public-school teachers in continental United States have actuarially sound retirement security. Twenty-five per cent are provided with some degree of security under non-actuarial plans; the remaining 25 per cent are without retirement provisions.²

It should not be inferred that all the teachers protected by retirement provisions have adequate social security. Careful estimates indicate that about half of these teachers at retirement cannot expect under present legislation to receive more than \$50 per month. About 40 per cent can receive over \$50 but less than \$100 per month; the remaining 10 per cent can expect more than \$100 per month. The provisions on the average are only slightly better than those made for industrial workers under the Federal Social Security Act.

¹ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 67. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1940.

² *Ibid.*, p. 67.

LOCAL RETIREMENT SYSTEMS

The best information available indicates that there are at least sixty-five local retirement systems in operation in 27 states and the District of Columbia. Some of these systems were established by city charter or school-board authorization without legislative action by the state. Others operate under permissive legislation. The majority of the largest cities of the United States (10 of first 16) have local retirement systems independent of state systems. Of the 92 cities of 100,000 population and over, 26 have their own retirement systems.

Most of the local systems were established prior to the adoption of state-wide retirement plans. Whether in large or middle-sized cities the plans are the result of effort on the part of highly professionalized groups of teachers to solve their own problems of social insecurity. These groups have usually found boards of education willing to participate in the solution of security problems, since in the city school systems retirement is generally recognized as essential to the maintenance of high professional standards among the teaching personnel.

Analysis of these local retirement systems shows that the majority follow the same general lines as those followed by the better state systems. Most of the local systems have adopted the joint-contributory plan with teacher contributions based on percentage of salary and public contributions derived from appropriations by city or school system or from specially designated sources of income. In about half of the cities retirement allowances are fixed at flat amounts; in the other half the allowances are fixed by actuarial methods or percentage grants determined by salary and length of service. Disability allowances are granted in most of the systems after ten years of service, the amount being proportionate to the years of service and the superannuation annuity.

The existence of local pension systems can be generally explained by the slowness of the states in which the cities are located in providing security for teachers on a state-wide basis. If and

when the states provide such systems, provisions should be made for the absorption of the new membership of the local systems into the state systems without loss of equity unless the local systems elect to continue on an independent basis. Generally speaking, the state-wide system should guarantee greater security than local systems, since the larger membership facilitates the more complete application of actuarial principles.

ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF RETIREMENT SYSTEM

If retirement systems are to accomplish their purposes, all doubt as to actuarial soundness must be removed. The legislation which establishes the system must embody the principles which are known to be fundamental to accepted annuity plans. Otherwise, social security is not provided for the teachers and the public fails to obtain the protection which it seeks. It is therefore important that both teachers and public be fully informed regarding the essential characteristics of sound retirement systems in order that a correct evaluation may be made of the features of existing or impending retirement legislation.¹

General membership

The stage of development has been reached when all teachers provided with a sound retirement system should be required to hold membership. Optional membership defeats the purposes of compulsory retirement. Since retirement legislation is an efficiency measure, its effects are vitiated when voluntary membership is allowed for any group.

In the past, general membership has been opposed chiefly by two groups of teachers, namely, (1) those who are just entering teaching, and (2) those in service who have made their own pro-

¹ For full discussion of the fundamental principles of a teacher retirement system see *Current Issues in Teacher Retirement*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. VIII, No. 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1930.

visions for social security. The best interests of the profession and the public require that both of these groups become members of state or local retirement systems, provided of course that the compulsory system complies with the generally accepted standards of security legislation. In no other way can teaching service be maintained at maximum professional efficiency without loss of professional morale.

General membership makes possible the retirement of all teachers when they reach the specified age. It therefore removes the possibility of appeal by the individual teacher to public sympathy to prolong his tenure beyond the period of efficient service. It also keeps the gate of admission to the profession open to young teachers whose opportunities are thwarted when teachers in service are permitted to hold their positions indefinitely.

Mutual protection for teacher and public

It is generally agreed that the retirement system which provides a pension for the public-school teacher must also protect the public from instruction by incapacitated teachers. This mutual protection to be effective must provide not only a retiring allowance sufficient to enable the teacher to live in reasonable comfort without other income, but must also fix an age at which retirement becomes compulsory. Voluntary retirement with pension should also be permitted after a specified period of service. For example, retirement may be compulsory at age sixty-five, although voluntary retirement is permitted after thirty years of service. Thus, a teacher who entered the profession at twenty-five years of age would be eligible to retire on the completion of thirty years of teaching, even if his age at the time was only fifty-five.

Without the assurances indicated it is doubtful whether either teachers or public would willingly support a retirement system. Satisfaction on the part of both is essential to the highest efficiency of the schools.

Cost of retirement shared by teacher and public

A system which is mutually beneficial should be supported by joint contributions. This feature is essential to a successful pension system. The distribution of the cost between teachers and public should be approximately equal and the majority of the sound retirement systems are based on equal contributions. The retirement laws usually provide for a percentage deduction from the teachers' salaries and an equal appropriation from public revenues. The burden of support thus rests equitably on the profession and the public.

Contributions specified in retirement law

Confidence in a retirement system depends on certainty of continued support. This is assured only when the contributions of teachers and the payments of the public are specified in law. The funds which are established are thus known in relation to the security to be provided. Changes in the amount of support should be made only on the basis of actuarial investigations.

Contributions concurrent with service

The maintenance of retirement funds on a sound basis requires that payments be made by teachers and public concurrently in order that the expected interest may be added to the accumulated reserve. Since deductions are made from the salaries of teachers there is no reason why these contributions should not be deposited regularly with the pension funds. The obligations of legislatures and school boards are not always promptly met. In systems where contributions by the public are not required to be made concurrently with the contributions of teachers, payments have occasionally been deferred. The deferred payments in some systems have become accrued liabilities of such size that members of legislatures or boards of education hesitate to appropriate the necessary amounts to bring the payments up to date. As a result, the soundness of the systems is jeopardized. Systems in which public contributions have defaulted have to be reorganized

with the state guaranteeing the annuities of the teachers whose security is affected by the deferred payments of the public.

Individual accounts

The acceptance of membership in a retirement system should result in the opening of an individual account for the teacher by the retirement board. All sums thereafter deposited to a teacher's account should be held in trust for that individual. Under no circumstances should the contributions made by one teacher to the retirement fund be used to pay annuities to other teachers. The public as well as the individual teacher is vitally interested in seeing that the annuity account of each teacher in the retirement system is available for disability or retirement purposes when so needed. Otherwise the system would not provide the assurances which the teacher and the public seek.

Many of the earlier retirement systems which failed because of unsoundness did not provide the individual account here advocated. This type of account is generally regarded as fundamental to an actuarially sound retirement system.

Adequate reserve must be established

It is essential that the legislation which establishes an annuity system should provide an adequate reserve fund to guarantee the promised benefits at the time each member is required to retire. This fund should be in accord with actuarial experience and its size should be determined by actuarial calculations, if the permanent solvency of the system is to be assured. The balance between assets and liabilities must be continuous if claims to soundness are to be maintained. Under a full actuarial reserve system on the individual basis, it makes little difference when any member retires, since the reserve built up for the individual teacher will provide the pension which age at retirement and length of service guarantee.

Provisions for disability

The retirement system should also provide for disability after a reasonable period of service. Such protection adds only a small per cent to the total cost of a retirement system and is just as essential in providing security and in maintaining high standards of professional service as retirement protection for superannuation. It necessitates, however, the establishment of physical standards for admission to teacher-training institutions and for the granting of teaching certificates. Since the tendency is to establish such standards anyway as prerequisites to teaching, there is no reason why protection against disability prior to superannuation should not be included in the legislation which establishes retirement provisions.

Status of accumulated deposits of the individual teacher

The accumulated deposits of the individual teacher in the retirement system should be regarded by the state as a savings account for the particular teacher until he is transferred to the retirement fund at the time of retirement from service. The account is thus the personal property of the teacher and is at his disposal on withdrawal from teaching or at the disposal of his beneficiary in case of death prior to retirement. After retirement the fund passes to the retirement board and the teacher has no further claim other than the annuity which is guaranteed.

Optional benefits provided

Generally approved retirement systems provide the annuitant with an option as to the payment of his claim. The choice must be made at the time of retirement and it usually consists of an option between a straight life annuity or an assured annuity of a certain number of equal payments. Choice of life annuity forfeits all claims to any unused part of the annuitant's account which remains at his death; choice of the assured annuity requires the segregation of the annuitant's account and the payment of the residue at death to his designated beneficiary or to his estate.

The tendency in retirement systems which require the establishment of individual accounts is to provide the annuitant with optional settlements similar to those contained in the standard policies issued by life insurance companies.

Credit allowed for past services

When a retirement system is adopted all teachers eligible to membership at the time should receive appropriate credit for their previous years of service. Provisions should be made from public funds at the time for the establishment of individual accounts for the eligible teachers equivalent to the deposits which would have been accumulated had the system been in operation during the entire period of their services. Thereafter all accumulations will be made from the joint contributions of the individual teachers and public appropriations.

Rights under previous systems safeguarded

Since many teachers have supported unsound annuity associations, it is necessary when sound systems are established that adequate provisions be made to guarantee the expected benefits of the teachers which were to be secured under defunct organizations. Teachers retired under such organizations should receive the annuities promised out of special appropriations made by the state or locality which was responsible for their retirement. The obligation to guarantee the claims of teachers under earlier organizations belongs to the state or locality concerned rather than to the teachers who have become members of the current system.

Co-operative relations between states

A sound retirement system should provide for reciprocal relations with similar systems in other states. The mobility of teachers between states requires that some plan of co-operation between retirement systems be provided whereby the accumulated credits in one system are not lost when teachers change from one jurisdiction to another. The practical application of co-operative

relations between pension systems will probably not be fully made until sound retirement systems have been provided in all the states.

Control by retirement board

The administration of the retirement system should be placed in the hands of a competent board, the composition of which is specified in the retirement act. It is generally agreed that both the teachers and the public should be represented on the board, since both are vitally interested in the efficient management of the system. The boards usually have from three to seven members and may include ex officio officers such as the state superintendent of public instruction, the state auditor, the attorney general, the superintendent of insurance, or the state bank examiner. It is considered essential that the board membership include persons who are expert in actuarial science as well as those who are keenly alert to the problems of social security.

Periodic actuarial investigations

The maintenance of the financial soundness of a retirement system requires periodic investigation of conditions and the revision of policies in the light of the findings. Changes in the internal affairs of the system should be made only on the basis of actuarial investigations. It is therefore essential that the retirement board provide not only for the periodic study of the operation of the retirement system but also for the special investigation of problems which may arise from meeting to meeting of the board. These investigations require the services of a competent actuary, who should be a member of the administrative staff. Special assistance may be secured for consultant services whenever the problems of the board require the advice of experienced actuarial specialists.

SALARY LOSSES OCCASIONED BY ABSENCE

Amount of salary losses

The losses of salary resulting from the absence of teachers from duty vary greatly from system to system. In some school systems the full pay of the teacher is deducted for absence regardless of cause; in others no deduction is made for absence for personal illness in case the total time lost does not exceed a fixed number of days established by the rules of the board of education. Evidence collected from many school systems indicates that the average absence for teachers in city school systems is approximately five days per year. The seriousness of the loss to teachers in systems making full deductions for absence depends on the adequacy of the salary schedule. In systems paying a bare subsistence salary the loss is serious; in cities paying generous salaries the loss is not serious. In school systems allowing some compensation for absence, the loss is naturally less acute than in systems allowing no compensation. Even if full compensation is allowed for a limited period of absence, the problem of loss of salary still remains a serious matter when the period of absence must necessarily be continued beyond the limit of full or partial compensation fixed by board rules.

For the teachers of the country as a whole the losses in salary occasioned by necessary absence from duty are of such magnitude as to constitute an important issue in their social security. The problem has been generally recognized by city school systems and provisions of various types have been made to minimize the loss to the teachers.

The issue of importance in the solution of the problem of temporary absence is the cost. If the cost of supplying the substitute service is deducted from the pay of the teacher, the loss must be assumed by the teacher. On the other hand, the loss is passed to the taxpayer when substitute service is provided by the school system without any deduction from the salary of the individual teacher. Regardless of the method employed in meeting the

problem, absence from duty by the regular teacher involves a loss to his pupils, since substitute service at best is seldom equal to that provided by the regular teacher. The loss to pupils cannot be made up in mere financial terms. It is most effectively met by reducing to a minimum the absence of the regular teacher and by supplying the best substitute service possible when such service is required.

Absence regulations

Considerable variation is found in the types of rules and regulations adopted by boards of education regarding the compensation of teachers for time lost on account of absence. Kuhlmann,¹ who analyzed such regulations, classified the numerous provisions pertaining to salary adjustments into six types: (1) each case of absence is considered on its individual merits; (2) each teacher is allowed a given number of days of absence each year without deduction of pay; (3) a certain number of days with full pay may be allowed each teacher, frequently increasing with the length of the teacher's service to the school; (4) a fixed number of days of absence is allowed each year with a small deduction from the teacher's salary of, perhaps, one or two dollars per day; (5) half-salary or the difference between the teacher's salary and the pay of the substitute teacher is allowed for a specified number of days; and (6) no allowance is given for absence, the full pay of the teacher being forfeited for each day missed.

In the adoption of plans for the control of teacher absence, the tendency has been to make provisions that will reduce the losses of the teacher and at the same time afford some protection to the taxpayers and pupils. Any plan which encourages or permits malingering on the part of some teachers is obviously unfair to the public which supports the schools. On the other hand, if in its efforts to protect the public, the board of education is penuri-

¹ William D. Kuhlmann, *Teacher Absence and Leave Regulations*, p. 48. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 564. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

ous with the teachers, causing them to come to school when they are physically unfit because of the impending loss in salary involved, the plan is unfair not only to the teachers but also to the pupils, who are entitled at all times to receive instruction from teachers physically and mentally fit.

Reduction of teacher's salary loss from personal illness

No really effective plan that meets all the requirements for the proper control of teacher absence has yet been devised. The plan proposed by Kuhlmann appears to possess merits worthy of trial in actual situations. He would ascertain a general average of the number of days lost by teachers in a school system from personal illness for several years and have the board of education set aside a salary appropriation in the budget based upon the product of the total number of teachers and the average days of absence. If at the end of the year the amount spent for substitute service exceeded the amount appropriated, the board would deduct from the pay of teachers who lost time because of personal illness a pro rata amount of the difference between the absence appropriation and the actual cost of the substitute service based on each teacher's days of absence.

To guarantee any possible excess of cost over the appropriation made, a small amount of the salary of each teacher in the school system would be retained from the last monthly payment subject to refund after the account for the current year was closed out. Under this plan teachers absent because of excusable causes would suffer no loss in pay if the cost of the substitute service were less than the amount appropriated by the board of education for the purpose. For example, if the average absence of teachers was found to be five days, the number of regular teachers employed 100, and the salary of substitutes \$6.00 per day, the budget appropriation for absence would be \$3,000. In case the cost of the service should prove to be \$3,600, then \$600 would have to be provided from the salaries of teachers who were absent during the year, the prorated share being one dollar for each day of absence.

Appropriate deductions would be made from the pay held in escrow and the rest returned.

Kuhlmann supports his plan with the following argument:

It protects the employee in that it provides security at low cost; it protects the employer in that his obligations are definite and do not exceed a certain amount; and it protects the pupil in that he will have a teacher who is relieved of the worry that results from the fear of economic loss caused by deductions from salary during temporary absence; also, the teacher is more likely to be physically and mentally fit because the urge to attend school when ill is lessened when it is known that there will be little or no loss of salary.¹

Losses from extended absence

The losses of teachers from extended absence in school systems which make little or no provisions for the compensation of teachers for serious disability are often considerable. For example, in a city school system employing approximately 100 teachers which operated prior to 1932 under a rule allowing each teacher full compensation for excused absence not in excess of seven days in one school year, a teacher who was absent because of physical disability sixty-nine days would have lost his entire salary for sixty-two days. In this school system the rule was changed to provide for the compensation of teachers indefinitely for excused absence from a pool made up of the daily wage of each teacher who has been absent (excused or not excused), after the cost of the substitute teacher (\$6.00 per day) is deducted and a fixed amount of \$2.50 per day appropriated by the board. A teacher whose salary is \$8.50 per day under the new regulation suffers no loss in salary, whereas the teacher whose salary is \$9.50 per day loses one dollar per day. If the teacher who was absent from duty sixty-nine days because of disability received a salary of \$8.50 per day his loss under the former plan would have been \$527. Under the revised plan this teacher receives full compensation. The teacher whose salary is \$9.50 per day would have

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 60-61.

lost \$589 under the seven-day rule, but loses only \$62 under the new regulation.

Thus the new regulation provides full security for teachers in the lower-salary brackets and substantial security at small salary loss for teachers in the higher brackets. Naturally the revised plan will cost the taxpayers more than the former plan, but it also protects the children from instruction by teachers who may at times report for duty when they are not in condition to render satisfactory service. Both the taxpayers and the teachers should therefore favor the revised plan since it provides the former with the desired protection at small cost (approximately \$400 per year on the average) and the latter with security from extended absence.

Colleges and universities deal generally with the problem of extended absence on the basis of individual merit. A few institutions have formulated definite regulations for the guidance of administrative officers in the granting of leaves for illness, but the large majority have no rules and regulations for the administration of such cases and prefer not to have them. Such rules as have been adopted are exceedingly liberal. An example of the latter type is the regulation of the University of Texas which states that in cases where illness incapacitates any employee of the university who has been in the service for one year or longer, such employee's salary shall be paid as a matter of course for a period of one month following the end of the month in which he is taken ill. If, in cases of illness extending beyond the period above specified, it shall be necessary to employ a substitute to do all or a part of the work of the employee who is ill, the Regents may, at their discretion, deduct from the salary of such employee enough to pay the substitute. But, where the work of such employee is carried during his illness by others already in the employ of the university and without additional compensation from the university, no such deduction will be made by the Regents. In the case of the death of an employee, the salary of the employee will be paid to his family for the remainder of the month in which the death occurred.

Health and accident insurance for extended absence

Health and accident insurance is available for teacher groups desirous of purchasing protection from extended absence. Usually these policies do not cover intermittent absence for short periods. They become effective only after a number of days of incapacity have transpired. Coverage equivalent to a salary of \$7.00 per day costs the individual teacher approximately \$50 per year.

Because of the cost such insurance is seldom carried by teachers in the low-salaried brackets. These are the teachers in greatest need of security from the losses entailed through extended absence.

POSSIBLE EXTENSION OF THE FEDERAL SOCIAL SECURITY ACT TO TEACHERS

The Federal Social Security Act was not intended to provide pensions for teachers. If teachers no longer teaching have attained the age of sixty-five years and are in need, they are eligible to receive the financial aid specified in the Social Security Act. No provisions have as yet been made for the inclusion of public-school teachers with the occupational groups for which old-age insurance benefits have been established. Bills introduced before both houses of the Seventy-Sixth Congress in August, 1940 were intended to extend the benefits of Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance to public employees and certain other groups not included in the original Social Security Act. In case such proposed legislation should be enacted teachers would be entitled to acquire future benefits under the conditions provided in the law.

Possible retirement benefits

There has been much discussion by teachers of the possibility of securing retirement benefits under the Social Security Act. The issues of greatest concern are the personal costs and the extent of the benefits that would be received. A recent bulletin of

the Research Division of the National Education Association has computed the cost and benefit for certain hypothetical cases according to the present provisions of the law if the benefits were extended to teachers. For example, a teacher thirty-five years old with an average salary of \$1,374 would contribute 1 per cent of this amount for the years 1941 and 1942. During the three ensuing years the contribution would be 2 per cent. For the next three years the rate would be 2½ per cent and thereafter 3 per cent. The average annual contribution of this teacher would be \$41.22 as long as his average salary remained \$1,374 per year. If he contributed for thirty years or until the age of sixty-five, he would receive an old age benefit of \$412.68 per year. If married, this individual on attaining age sixty-five would receive benefits for his wife equal to half the amount paid to him and additional benefits for any eligible children.¹

Possible death benefits

According to the provisions of the Social Security Act if extended to a married male teacher, monthly benefits would be received by the widow of the man eligible for payments until all children reach the age of eighteen. At sixty-five the widow would receive an old-age pension equal to three-fourths of the annuity which would have been paid to her husband.

Withdrawal benefits

Contributions made by participants in the Old-Age Insurance Plan of the Social Security Act are not refunded in case of withdrawal from service. This feature has been regarded with disfavor by many teachers, probably because most teacher-retirement systems permit the withdrawal of contributions made. The provision should not be regarded unfavorably since the contributions under social security are kept in trust for the individual and

¹ *Status of Teacher Retirement*, p. 56. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XIX, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1941.

are used to provide an old-age benefit when he becomes sixty-five years of age or are paid as benefits to his survivors if he dies before attaining that age.

Teachers who would benefit most from being included under Federal Social Security Act

The teacher who suffers most from social insecurity under ordinary retirement systems is the one who frequently changes positions across state lines. Status in one retirement system is lost through transfer to a new locality which does not have a retirement system. Even if the new position offers retirement privileges, full credit for previous service is seldom allowed. As a result the migratory type of teacher may arrive at retirement age and find that he has lost because of lack of reciprocity among state and local retirement systems much of the benefit to which he might have been entitled if he had remained in one state.

The teacher who withdraws from the profession to enter upon some other type of work is also penalized by most retirement systems with loss in pension status. The general practice is to return without interest the contributions made by the teacher up to the time of his withdrawal from the profession. He does not receive the amounts contributed by the public.

The migratory type of teacher and the teacher who withdraws from the profession would find the Social Security Act a distinct advantage if it were made applicable to public employees, since contributions may be continued and benefits received regardless of the moves made or the type of employment accepted.

Difficulties involved in dual coverage

Several difficulties are anticipated in states that have already set up retirement systems, if the Social Security Act should be extended to provide old-age insurance for teachers. It is doubtful whether many local school districts and many individual teachers could afford to meet the contributions required by membership in both state and federal systems.

It has been suggested that school districts would pay their employer's contributions out of the funds budgeted for the payment of teachers' salaries; then, running short of funds, they might cut salaries of teachers. In such an event, the teachers would be paying the employee and employer taxes.¹

It has also been contended by some that if social security were made compulsory for teachers, pressure by economic groups on state legislatures would probably be exerted either to abolish state retirement systems or to reduce appropriations for state retirement funds. In either case teachers in certain states might lose more in benefits than they would gain from being placed under the coverage of the Social Security Act.

Possible solutions of the problem

Four possible solutions of the problem under consideration have been suggested in a recent bulletin of the National Education Association, namely, (1) the original Wagner proposal of compulsory nation-wide social security coverage of all local and state employees; (2) the amended Wagner Bill exempting areas where retirement systems exist but requiring social security in all other areas; (3) a nation-wide voluntary plan leaving all states free to adopt social security or to ignore it; and (4) a partly voluntary plan wherein existing systems would be exempted but all other areas might voluntarily accept the federal program.²

A number of other plans have been proposed for the solution of the social security problem of all citizens. Some of these plans would require little or no contribution to old-age insurance on the part of the individual. Whatever solution is finally effected, it is evident that the specter of insecurity in old age is almost certain to be removed from the teaching profession in the near future.

¹ *Status of Teacher Retirement, ibid.*, p. 59.

² *Ibid.*, p. 60.

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PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

TEACHING has long been classified as a profession but in some of the important characteristics of professional workers, a large percentage of teachers have been lacking. The relatively low professional status of many teachers is accounted for by the fact that the requirements for admission to the profession and the remuneration have been low. Great improvements in both respects have been made in recent years. For example, a generation ago the largest proportion of teachers were recruited from the elementary schools. All that was required to obtain a certificate to teach in most states was the passing of a written examination in the common branches and in the science of pedagogy. Almost any person who had completed the work of the elementary school and had read seriously one or two books on pedagogy, which usually treated of school management and methods of teaching, could qualify to teach in rural schools. Promotion from rural to town and city schools generally depended on successful experience. The average remuneration received by teachers for the country as a whole in 1900 amounted to only \$325 per year.

Today the situation is very different. The minimum requirements are graduation from a four-year high school and at least one year of acceptable work in an accredited teachers college. Most school systems demand two years of professional training and many require four. The average wage received by teachers in 1940 was \$1,360, or a little more than four times that received by those engaged in teaching forty years before.

With the improvement in professional training and remunera-

tion have come improvements in personal qualifications and in ethical standards. The changes have been brought about partly by the teachers themselves, but chiefly by the changing requirements of the social order for types of professional services superior to those provided in the schools of a generation ago.

As society has become more and more aware of the influence of the teacher on the child, it has tended to increase its demands for higher personal and professional qualifications. The explanation of these increasing demands is the close association of the teacher with young people during the formative period of their lives. Whether the teacher wills it or not, he is often regarded as an ideal by his pupils. The influence of his example thus becomes an issue of great importance both to parents and to the social order. High standards of personal conduct are therefore expected of the teacher by the community in which he is employed. These standards are usually regarded not as impositions but as prerequisites of the teaching profession.

The point of view just expressed has been aptly stated by Herbert Hoover:

... The public school teacher cannot live apart; he cannot separate his teaching from his daily walk and conversation. He lives among his pupils during school hours, and among them and their parents all the time. ... His office, like that of a minister of religion, demands of him an exceptional standard of conduct.¹

CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROFESSION

Persons contemplating the choice of teaching for a career are entitled to know the characteristics of a member of the teaching profession. How do the characteristics of members of the teaching profession compare with the characteristics of members of the nearly fifty professions and semiprofessions recognized in the census of the United States?

¹ Herbert Hoover, "Education as a National Asset," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, LXIV (1926), 729-30.

Any comparison of professions requires a general definition of the term "profession." The dictionary definition is "a calling in which one professes to have acquired some special knowledge used by way either of instructing, guiding, or advising others or of serving them in some art." A more elaborate definition is that given by Tawney:

A profession may be defined most simply as a trade which is organized, incompletely, no doubt, but genuinely, for the performance of function. It is not simply a collection of individuals who get a living for themselves by the same kind of work. Nor is it merely a group which is organized exclusively for the economic protection of its members, though that is normally among its purposes. It is a body of men who carry on their work in accordance with rules designed to enforce certain standards both for the better protection of its members and for the better service of the public. . . . Its essence is that it assumes certain responsibilities for the competence of its members or the quality of its wares, and that it deliberately prohibits certain kinds of conduct on the ground that, though they may be profitable to the individual, they are calculated to bring into disrepute the organization to which he belongs. While some of its rules are trade union regulations designed primarily to prevent the economic standards of the profession being lowered by unscrupulous competition, others have as their main object to secure that no member of the profession shall have any but a purely professional interest in his work.¹

Pretraining selection

In a consideration of the pretraining selection of teachers, valuable assistance can be secured from a study of the well-established professions of law, medicine, and engineering which exercise considerable care in the selection of recruits. Not everyone who chooses to do so can enter the training schools of these professions. The gates of admission are carefully guarded. Candidates must meet the standards for admission set up by these professions. For example, to secure admission to the medical school of the University of Chicago, the candidate must apply six months prior to the

¹ R. H. Tawney, *The Acquisitive Society*, pp. 92-93. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1929.

actual time of admission. The Committee on Admissions selects from among approximately 900 applicants sixty-five candidates, the quota for the calendar year. The selection is based on scholarship, aptitude, and character — in short, on the possession of those qualities judged necessary or desirable in the study and practice of medicine. Three years of college preparation are required. Two may well be devoted to general education, including the social sciences and the humanities, in addition to elementary physical and biological sciences. Special training in physics (at least eight semester hours), in chemistry (quantitative analysis and organic chemistry), and in biology (comparative anatomy, laboratory physiology, embryology, and psychology) may be undertaken in the third college year. A reading knowledge of German or French is required and is tested by examination.¹

Relatively few teacher-training institutions have set up admission standards comparable with those which must be met by the candidates seeking admission to schools of medicine. Too many institutions which prepare teachers still vie with one another in respect to the number of students that are enrolled. As a result the teaching profession has been flooded with mediocre material. Many of the students admitted to teacher-training schools either have been rejected by other professional schools or would have been rejected if they had applied.

Before teaching can stand high as a profession the standards of pretraining selection must be raised. Much progress in this direction has been made through the adoption by standard teachers colleges of an admission requirement of graduation from an accredited high school. This requirement, however, does not provide adequate protection. Other requirements prior to admission should be set up, such as certificate of good health, satisfactory rating on aptitude examination, good academic record in high school, evidences of good character, and personal characteristics essential to success in teaching.

¹ *Announcements*, The University of Chicago, The College and The Divisions, p. 429. Vol. XL, No. 10. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

Adequate specialized training

The nature of professional work requires specialized training which cannot be acquired by any individual merely through reading and observation. Evidence of successful practice under competent supervision is generally required as part of the training course before professional recognition is given.

The profession of teaching has made great progress in recent years in the direction of adequate specialized training. There are, however, still too many teachers colleges and liberal-arts colleges sending teachers into the field with so-called "professional training" and practice-teaching experiences that are inferior. Until these sources of professional supply are improved the profession of teaching must carry the stigma of inadequate specialized preparation.

Permanence of membership

It is of course inevitable that some individuals will desire to withdraw from a profession even after making adequate preparation for it and entering into it. In general, such changes are few in the established professions. Medicine, law, engineering, architecture, dentistry, and the like are not regarded as stepping-stones to other professions. Teaching, on the contrary, has never enjoyed this holding power. As indicated in Chapter XVI the turnover of personnel in teaching is great. Many enter teaching as a temporary occupation. Since a large proportion of the members of the teaching profession are women, perhaps it is to be expected that many abandon teaching for marriage.

The fact that many communities do not look with favor on the woman teacher who continues to hold a teaching position after marriage has no doubt contributed to the lack of permanence of the membership of the teaching profession. The further fact that the salaries of teachers have been too low to provide social and economic security has caused many men teachers to leave the profession. Fortunately, these causes of rapid turnover have not operated extensively in many middle-sized and large cities, nor in

institutions of higher learning. As a result a considerable proportion of the personnel engaged in teaching may be regarded as having permanent tenure.

Effective professional organization

A characteristic of a profession that is fundamental to the establishment and enforcement of ethical standards is an effective organization. The medical and legal professions, for example, have long been efficiently organized and it is generally believed that this fact accounts very largely for the progress which these professions have made along ethical lines. In this connection little need be said about the organizations of teachers, since teacher organizations are fully discussed in Chapter XIII. Teachers are certainly more extensively organized than doctors and lawyers. It is doubtful, however, if teacher organizations are as effectively integrated as are those of medicine and law.

Sufficient remuneration to provide social and economic security

The remuneration of professional workers should be sufficient to provide social and economic security for them and their dependents. However, not all members of a profession can be expected to attain this standard. If a majority of the members find the remuneration for their services inadequate, then the status of the profession will be unsatisfactory. Teaching will be classified as a seasonal occupation, if the remuneration proves inadequate for the support of the members throughout the entire year. Since the remuneration of half or more of the individuals who are now engaged in teaching has been shown to be insufficient to provide social and economic security, teaching as a profession is short in at least this particular. The fact that part of the members are adequately provided for means that for some, teaching has become a profession; for others, it is only a temporary occupation.

Practices governed by ethical principles

Probably no group is entitled to consideration as a profession until it has set up ethical principles for the regulation of its practices and has provided for the enforcement of these principles. Violations of the ethical principles by individual members should not be countenanced by a profession. If such offenders persist in their violations after warning, they should be brought to orderly trial and, if convicted, suspended from membership in the profession. For example, a lawyer who has been adjudged guilty of breach of professional ethics is deprived of the right to appear in court as an attorney by the bar association of which he is a member.

In teaching, the censorship of professional conduct rests very largely with the community and with superior administrative officers. For unethical conduct the certificate of a teacher may be revoked by the certificating authority, or the teacher's contract may be annulled by the board of education which has employed him. For an offending teacher to be tried by his professional associates, and to be subjected to appropriate administrative action is virtually unheard of. Yet until the teaching profession itself is willing to set up standards of ethical practices and until it undertakes to enforce the observance of these standards many will question whether teaching has fully acquired the status of a profession.

Professional organ of communication

Since the members of a profession are widely scattered and find communication difficult, some medium of periodic communication must be developed whereby the members may be kept informed of the progress toward professional behavior. This medium is generally a periodic publication distributed from the headquarters of the professional organization. Through this publication professional public opinion is developed and co-operative action is effected.

In official publications the teaching profession ranks high, pos-

sessing a national journal of education distributed to all the members of the National Education Association and state journals distributed to the members of most of the state teachers' associations. Through these mediums almost all teachers who are members of one or more organizations are kept informed regarding professional problems. In addition, many of the special organizations maintain their own professional organs which are devoted chiefly to the special problems of particular groups.

Through the pooling of their current publications, teacher groups can provide a wealth of professional materials for the benefit of all the members. Perhaps no other profession excels teaching in the variety and amount of current materials provided through the professional organs of the numerous teacher organizations.

Professional meetings for the discussion of common problems

The teaching profession is amply provided with professional meetings. Annual meetings of the National Education Association and the state teachers' associations of the different states enable most teachers through their official delegate representatives to present their views for consideration, and to receive reports on actions taken. Direct participation in the consideration of professional questions is provided in all districts or local school systems maintaining units of the state teachers' association. Even where such units do not exist most teachers still find adequate opportunities to share in professional discussions through the organizations of special groups of teachers or through local study meetings.

ETHICAL STANDARDS OF TEACHERS

A study of the attitudes of teachers on ethical questions discloses that on the large majority of school practices in which ethical principles are involved the ethical views of teachers are

TABLE 45. PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS EXPRESSING POSITIVE, NEGATIVE, AND QUALIFIED POSITIONS ON THE ETHICS OF THE PRACTICES LISTED *

Practices	Per Cent Answering		
	"Yes"	"No"	With Qualifications and Un-answered
To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents.	2	93	5
To teach one's religious, political, or other private beliefs to pupils.....	2	92	6
To fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked.....	3	91	6
To use the profession as a steppingstone to other professions or vocations.....	27	41	32
To seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position.....	32	52	16
To accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly.....	18	53	29
To censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency within the profession.....	46	27	27
To accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is the superintendent of schools.....	42	24	34
To do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign.....	38	32	30

* Adapted from "Report of Committee on Ethics of the Profession," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association*, *ibid.*, p. 185.

sound.¹ In fact, comparison of the views of teachers with two groups of administrative officers, namely, (1) principals, assistant superintendents, and deans, and (2) superintendents of schools and presidents of colleges and universities, on thirty-nine ethical questions reveals virtually no differences in the ethical standards of the three groups. The correct ethical position was taken by 68.5 per cent of the teachers on the entire list of questions. Un-

¹ "Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession — Abstract," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association*, LXVII (1929), 179-90.

ethical positions were taken by only 12.5 per cent of the teachers, although 19 per cent qualified their answers by indicating that conditioning factors would determine the position to be taken.

Examples of ethical practices on which near unanimity of opinion exists, and on which considerable and marked disagreement also exists are given in Table 45. Analysis of the practices indicates very clearly that self-interest is an important factor in causing teachers to take doubtful positions on ethical standards. Even so, the group sampled revealed an average agreement of 78 per cent on thirty of the thirty-nine practices regarding which they expressed judgments. On only nine practices was the agreement less than 50 per cent — here the average agreement was 40 per cent.

From the data considered it appears safe to conclude that a substantial majority of teachers view the ethical problems of the teaching profession in the correct light. In view of the fact that systematic instruction on ethical attitudes has been given in the past in relatively few teacher-training institutions, it is surprising that the agreement of teachers regarding practices involving ethical standards is as high as it is.

VIOLATIONS OF ETHICAL STANDARDS

Data reported by the Research Division of the National Education Association from 419 teachers, supervisors, and administrative officers revealed a total of 1,627 violations of professional ethics of which the individuals professed to have specific knowledge. The violations were classified in eight groups with the frequencies listed in Table 46.

Unethical relations with associates

The principles of ethics most frequently violated by teachers are those that pertain to relations with associates. Such violations constitute nearly one-half of all the instances reported. Some of these violations reveal lack of tact and good judgment

TABLE 46. MAIN TYPES OF VIOLATIONS OF ETHICAL PRINCIPLES
REPORTED BY TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS *

Type of Violation	Frequency of Mention
1. In relations with associates.....	1,185
2. In connection with applications, recommendations, contracts, and termination of employment.....	205
3. In relations with pupils.....	108
4. In relations with community.....	70
5. In relation to the profession.....	23
6. Miscellaneous.....	21
7. In relations with teachers' agencies, and publishing and sup- ply houses.....	13
8. In relation with parents.....	2
Total.....	1,627

* Adapted from *Ethics in the Teaching Profession*, p. 20. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. IX, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1931.

on the part of teachers rather than a deliberate effort to injure other members of the profession. Examples of this particular type of violation are: (1) the teacher who boasts about his own accomplishments to pupils and parents in such a way as to leave the impression that his abilities are not appreciated by administrative officers and fellow teachers, (2) the teacher who complains at every opportunity of the fact that he holds a higher degree than any other member of the faculty and has had previous experience in more important school systems than other members and that therefore he should receive a higher salary than his colleagues, and (3) the teacher who constantly whines to other teachers that he is the only member of his department qualified to reorganize the curriculum, yet is prevented from doing so because of the professional jealousy of the chairman and other members of the department.

Other types of violations which are classified under the category of professional relations are characterized as selfishness, prejudice, un-co-operativeness, discourtesy, and in some instances dishonesty. The exhibition of these traits of character by a teacher is a reproach to the profession and should therefore be regarded as unethical.

Perhaps some of the teachers who are reported as transgressing the ethics of professional relationships are not aware of the fact that they are regarded by their associates as violators of the principles of ethics. They may have grievances which have been nursed to the point of becoming obsessions. As a result those who suffer from these obsessions constantly give offense without really intending to do so. They have probably never considered the attitudes and personal characteristics desired and not desired in teachers. They should be called into conference by their administrative officers and frankly advised regarding improvements which need to be undertaken.

The data presented in Table 47 reveal the nature of the unethical practices reported by teachers in their dealings with associates. Of the total number of such practices reported approximately 42 per cent consist of criticisms of fellow teachers. The frequency with which these criticisms are reported and the irresponsible character of the criticisms uttered reveal an absence of ethical standards in professional relations with other members of the teaching profession that is appalling.

TABLE 47. MOST FREQUENTLY REPORTED VIOLATIONS OF PROFESSIONAL RELATIONS WITH ASSOCIATES *

Violation	Number Reported
1. Criticism of associates.....	504
2. General improprieties.....	257
3. Failure to assist in carrying out policies of school system.....	111
4. Failure to transact business through proper channels.....	75
5. Failure to support associates.....	71
6. Failure to give credit for assistance and achievements.....	53
7. Failure to hold confidential information inviolate.....	35
8. Failure to assist associates with advice and helpful ideas.....	31
9. Interfering in schoolroom affairs of associates.....	26
10. Failure to assist associates to secure merited promotion.....	7
11. Failure to give opportunity for assisting in the development of policies.....	7
12. Shifting responsibility to others.....	6
13. Adequate data for successors.....	2
Total.....	1,185

* Adapted from *Ethics in the Teaching Profession*, *ibid.*, p. 47.

The code adopted by the teachers of Rhode Island provides an excellent standard for the guidance of teachers when tempted to give expression to criticisms of associates:

As long as one remains a member of a school organization, loyalty to the interests of the school and community demands the entire suppression of irresponsible criticism of the institution, its policies, and its officers. Especially to be avoided and condemned are inciting and encouraging or tolerating antagonisms among pupils toward officers or policies and indulgence in outside criticism, ill-natured gossip, and backbiting. Above all, no teacher worthy of the name will engage in organized conspiracy against his superiors. . . . While one cannot always approve of one's colleagues (or for that matter of superiors either), the only correct professional attitude toward them is genuine (not hypocritical) reticence, and absence from expressions of disapproval or ill-will.

Of the total of 1,185 violations of ethics in relations with associates reported in Table 47, approximately two-thirds (items 1, 2, 9, and 12) are of the positive sort; that is, the teachers concerned actually committed offenses which were condemned by associates on ethical grounds. The remaining one-third of the violations reported are of the negative sort; that is, the individuals failed to act in situations where ethical action was expected. These teachers are just as guilty of professionally reprehensible derelictions as are those who commit the positive acts.

Ethical violations with respect to positions

A type of violation of ethical principles frequently reported is that which pertains to securing positions and to terminating contracts. Applying for positions before they are vacant, seeking positions on bases other than merit, underbidding on salary, seeking an offer elsewhere to obtain an increase of salary in present position, and breaking of contracts are among the frequent violations with which teachers are charged.

The codes of teachers' organizations very generally condemn the broadcasting of applications for specific positions and the filing of applications with persons other than professional officers.

The teacher is also expected to withdraw outstanding applications for other positions after a contract has been signed for a given position. Appointment and promotion should be sought on the basis of professional merit and not through the use of family pull; political, religious, or fraternal influence; and "kow-towing" to members of the board of education.

Most of the codes recommend that the teacher fulfill any agreement which he makes. The code of the National Education Association states:

A contract once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. In case of emergency, the thoughtful consideration which business sanction demands should be given by both parties to the contract.

The method of terminating contracts should be specified in the regulations of boards of education, and teachers, when accepting appointments, should be informed regarding such regulations. Since a contract is a reciprocal obligation between teacher and employer, failure to comply with the terms by either party should be regarded as a violation of professional ethics.

Unethical relations with pupils, parents, and community

The reported violations of standards of conduct in relations with pupils, parents, and community are relatively infrequent in comparison with the violations already discussed. The probable reason for the difference is the fact that teachers in training are generally instructed to regard proper treatment of pupils as the primary obligation of the teaching profession. This view is supported by twenty-one of the thirty-three professional codes.¹ An excellent example is provided by the code of the Wyoming Education Association:

The teacher's first duty is to his pupils. Their interest must not be sacrificed upon the altar of selfishness, community responsibilities, or pleasure.

¹ *Ethics in the Teaching Profession, ibid.*, p. 38.

The teachers' code of South Dakota declares:

It is unprofessional for teachers to receive books gratis from publishing houses when there is not a real expectation of examining them for prospective texts.

The evidence available indicates that teachers as a group are less sensitive to violations of ethics in their professional relations than in their personal relations. For example, in a school system which allowed ten days' absence on account of personal illness during the year, several teachers stayed out of school on days when they were not ill and attempted to justify their absence on the ground that since they had not used their full quota of days for sick leave they were entitled to use the remaining days as they saw fit. These same teachers would not have defended such a dishonest practice in their personal relations with friends or neighbors. Similar violations of professional ethics among teachers are not infrequent. Consequently, the generalization is warranted that the standards of professional conduct are not as clearly conceived or strictly observed as are the standards of personal conduct.

CONTROL THROUGH CERTIFICATION

Officials charged with the responsibility for the certification of teachers seek to prevent unprofessional conduct by granting certificates only to individuals of good character. In most of the states the laws which provide for the issuing of teaching certificates provide for the revoking of such certificates when the holder indulges in unethical practices. The power to revoke is generally explicit. This power is usually lodged with the state superintendent of public instruction or the state board of education. In 19 states the power resides with the former and in 17 states with the latter. Some states permit the revocation of certificates by local authorities as well as by state authorities. In a few states the sole power to revoke rests with the county superintendent.

The violations of ethics in dealing with pupils are largely accounted for by the refusal of teachers to consider differences among pupils, by their disinclination to deal fairly and justly with individuals, by unsympathetic and discourteous attitude, and by failure to hold inviolate confidential information obtained from their pupils. Conspicuous examples of such violations appear when teachers bear personal grudges against pupils because of dislike for their parents, or show favoritism among pupils because of the prominence of their families, or use sarcasm and call pupils insulting names.

Another breach of ethical principles consists in disregard for the social standards of the community in which the teacher is employed. Such violation of community standards appears when a teacher refuses to participate in the wholesome activities of community life or becomes aligned with cliques or factions.

Other violations

In their relations with teachers' agencies, publishers, school-supply houses, and the profession itself, teachers occasionally violate ethical standards. Clearly, teachers should avoid entanglements with agencies or firms which might lead to unethical practices. The code of the Pennsylvania Education Association warns teachers against entering into collusion with employment agencies in the following terms:

The profession should unhesitatingly condemn teachers' agencies that (1) encourage teachers to break contracts, (2) work for the appointment or promotion of unqualified teachers, (3) make recommendations for positions not known positively to be vacant, or (4) induce teachers to leave their positions during the school year unless an honorable release should be secured.

The code of the State Teachers' Association of Massachusetts warns:

No teacher should accept the aid of an agent or any book or supply house in obtaining a teaching position.

The laws are also explicit regarding the causes for which the certificates of teachers may be revoked. The causes most frequently mentioned are (1) immorality, in 35 states; (2) incompetency, 26 states; (3) negligence, 19 states; and (4) habitual or excessive intemperance, 13 states. In 10 states revocation of certificate can be made for good, reasonable, or sufficient cause, the official exercising the power being the judge of the sufficiency of the cause. Other causes mentioned in the statutes for which certificates may be revoked are cruelty to pupils, unprofessional conduct, unbecoming behavior, evident unfitness for teaching, fraud or dishonesty in the profession, sectarian instruction, and profanity.

The causes for which the certificates of teachers are most frequently revoked are immorality, intemperance, and unprofessional conduct. Only 42 instances of revocation were reported by 10 states to the Research Division of the National Education Association for the period 1920 to 1937, although the hearings reported numbered 79. For other professions the revocations reported for the same period were: 478 physicians reported by 20 states; 243 lawyers reported by 14 states; 32 nurses reported by 32 states; 19 accountants reported by 20 states; and 8 architects reported by 21 states.¹

IMPROVEMENT THROUGH CODES

The earliest efforts to improve the ethical practices of teachers were made by individuals whose thinking along professional lines was far in advance of that of the profession as a whole. Some of these individuals worked out codes of ethics setting forth the practices which they regarded as professional and those which they did not consider professional. These codes were viewed generally by teachers as idealistic statements and as unsuitable for

¹ *Statutory Status of Six Professions: Accountancy, Architecture, Law, Medicine, Nursing, Teaching*, p. 225. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVI, No. 4. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1938.

practice in many respects in a professional world where positions are secured and retained through personal aggressiveness.

The idea of a code of professional ethics for the teachers of an entire state is credited to Georgia where the State Teachers' Association officially adopted such a code in 1896. A few states had followed the Georgia example — in all, eight states — by 1920. Four years later (1924) the National Education Association appointed a committee to study the question of preparing a national code. The committee after five years of study prepared a code of professional ethics for teachers. This code was adopted by the National Education Association in 1929 and an abstract published in the volume of addresses and proceedings of the association for that year. In 1931 a Research Bulletin entitled *Ethics in the Teaching Profession*,¹ based largely on the report of the Committee on Professional Ethics, was published. At that time 33 of the state teachers' associations were reported as having officially adopted professional codes. Today such codes have been adopted by the teachers' organizations of 37 states.²

A new Committee on Professional Ethics was appointed by the National Education Association in March, 1934. This committee in a preliminary report³ has issued a statement of principles and recommendations regarding the use of codes urging teacher-training institutions to acquaint all future teachers with the standards of the national code and to give consideration to the problems of interpreting and enforcing the principles of professional ethics set forth in both national and state codes.

According to the Educational Research Service Bulletin, only four of the official codes provide for the enforcement of their standards through commissions. Strictly speaking, these are the

¹ *Ethics in the Teaching Profession*, *op. cit.*

² "Ethics in the Teaching Profession: Codes of State and National Educational Associations," p. 3. Educational Research Service Bulletin. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1939 (mimeographed).

³ "Teaching Professional Ethics," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXV (April, 1936), 118.

only real codes of the entire group. The others are at best only the composite opinions of organizations of teachers as to the forms of behavior which they regard as professional and unprofessional. Even so, such codes should not be disparaged, since they carry a certain prestige and have back of them sufficient public opinion to cause teachers to weigh carefully any practices that are regarded as violations of ethical standards by the group responsible for the adoption of the particular code.

The trend of opinion regarding professional codes is that they are effective instruments in the improvement of professional services and standards of conduct of members. When developed and sanctioned by the group which they are intended to influence they lead to social relationships of higher order than is usually possible in groups that have developed no such instruments.

Ethical principles dealt with in codes

Analysis of various codes for teachers reveals the following six broad principles of conduct on which the various makers of codes appear to agree:

1. The teacher's conduct should be such as will keep him physically and mentally fit.
2. The teacher's conduct should be a worthy example for his pupils.
3. The teacher's conduct should be such as will bring no reproach upon himself.
4. The teacher's conduct should be such as will bring no reproach upon the profession.
5. The teacher's conduct should conform in general to the accepted standards of the community in which he teaches.
6. The teacher's conduct should contribute to harmony and efficiency in all of his professional relationships.¹

Individuals who select teaching for a profession will save themselves much future trouble by accepting these principles and by governing their professional conduct accordingly. Those who find themselves at variance with the principles should select some

¹ *Ethics in the Teaching Profession, op. cit.*, p. 32.

other profession in which personal and social conduct are not such important factors in the determination of professional success.

Specifically with reference to principle 5, some teachers may object to the censorship of their personal conduct outside of school when it deviates from community standards. They may hold that complete acquiescence to those standards is unreasonable as well as injurious to personality. To such teachers there are two courses of action: (1) the individual does not have to remain beyond the expiration of his contract in a community which restricts his personality; (2) the individual may conform to generally accepted community standards without adopting these standards as his own, if he considers that such standards conflict with the ethics of his profession.

The evidence collected by the Committee on Professional Ethics of the National Education Association indicates that the standards of communities are violated by relatively few teachers and that in most of the cases of such violation the standards of the teacher rather than those of the community are in conflict with the principles of the professional code.¹

Making codes effective

The effectiveness of codes of professional ethics is conditioned by three factors, namely, (1) the clarity and specific character of the standards of ethics adopted, (2) the extent to which the codes are disseminated among the members of the profession and are understood, and (3) the provisions made in the code for the enforcement of its standards.² With respect to the first factor, most codes rank reasonably high. As a group the codes have been carefully prepared and are sufficiently specific to be easily understood. All have been printed in official publications which are distributed to members. It is therefore fair to assume that the large majority of teachers now engaged in teaching know about the codes of their respective states and that the majority are

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 34.

² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

familiar with the code of the National Education Association. But it is doubtful whether the mere reading of a code will yield the highest values. The provisions of the codes should be fully discussed in faculty meetings, violations should be considered, and mutual assistance should be given in acquiring the fullness of understanding of all standards proposed. Teachers in training as well as those in service should be fully informed at least regarding the code of the state in which they reside and regarding the code of the National Education Association. They should also be keenly aware of the professional implications of all the provisions of these codes.

While the mere expression of the principles of ethics applicable to the practices of teaching will tend to clarify the thinking of many teachers, the greatest value will not be derived from the formulation and dissemination of these principles until the profession itself undertakes to enforce the ethical standards which it adopts. As previously pointed out, enforcement is attempted by only four of the codes, one of which is in Pennsylvania. This code provides:

(a) There shall be a Commission on Professional Ethics operating under the Pennsylvania Education Association. This commission shall consist of the president of the association *ex officio* and four members of the profession, appointed by the president, with terms of four years each, one term expiring on July first each year; (b) It shall be the duty of this commission to study the various problems of professional ethics arising from time to time, to give to inquiring members of the profession its interpretation of the meaning of various principles in this code, to arrange for investigations rendered advisable in connection with this code, to take such action in regard to their findings as may be deemed wise, to make recommendations to the state education association as to amendments or additions to the code, and in general to have oversight of all questions arising in connection with the ethics of the teaching profession within the state; (c) It shall be the duty of the members of the profession to co-operate with this commission by making suggestions for the improvement of this code and by reporting violations of it.

In the last analysis the future of the profession of teaching de-

depends on the response of the individual member to the challenge to improve. Because of the influences of the teacher on the future membership of all professions, any advancement made by the teacher in attaining higher levels of professional conduct should to some extent be reflected in the conduct of other professions. For this reason the efforts of teachers' organizations to improve professional ethics merit the fullest co-operation and support of every teacher.

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CHAPTER XX

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

THE first certificate issued to a prospective teacher is always a short-term certificate, sometimes valid only for a single year, never valid for more than three years. It is designed to guarantee to boards of education or other employing agencies that the holder of the certificate has completed a course of preparation for admission to the teaching profession. According to common practice in teachers colleges the curriculum leading to the first certificate includes practice teaching as an essential element. It is recognized, however, that the beginning teacher has much to learn through continued and responsible contact with pupils in the classroom and as a result of his efforts to prepare materials of instruction. The reason why the first certificate is valid only for a short period is that school administrators have come to think of actual experience in the conduct of classroom exercises as contributing something to the development of teachers that can be gained in no other way.

IMPROVEMENT ESSENTIAL TO ADVANCEMENT

The second certificate granted to a teacher who has completed a period of successful teaching and all subsequent certificates are accepted by employing authorities as evidence of maturity in the profession. There are some school systems which will not employ a candidate who does not have an advanced certificate. It is safe to say that some boards of education and some school

administrators lay far too much emphasis on "experience." It can be urged that a young graduate of a teachers college often takes up the duties of his first position with an enthusiasm for and with an understanding of the results of recent scientific studies of education which go far toward compensating for lack of practical experience. It is also coming to be very generally recognized that there is danger that teachers will deteriorate if, after they become well established in teaching positions, they do not continue to study quite as vigorously as they did during the years when they were attending the institutions which gave them their initial preparation. Furthermore, in a world where advances in knowledge in all fields are being made every day even the knowledge of subject matter which a teacher acquired in the course of his preparation is sure to become obsolete unless there is constant in-service study.

VALUE OF INTERNESHIP EXPERIENCE

The teaching profession is no different from other professions with respect to the value of the experience gained in practice and with respect to the necessity for continual contact with the advances of knowledge. People do not regard a physician as highly proficient unless they believe that he keeps himself abreast of the new discoveries of medical science. Indeed, the medical profession has so organized its program for the preparation of its younger members that it has given them an understanding of the importance of combining practical contact with patients and advanced study. The internships required of candidates for medical degrees leave an awareness in the minds of the new members of the profession that persists when they enter on independent practice. They have cultivated an attitude which leads them to study with all possible aids every problem that they encounter. The development in the educational system of some kind of internship has often been advocated as a means of bringing the teaching profession to the same level as that of the medi-

cal profession. A teaching internship would emphasize the importance of continued study in somewhat the same way that a short-term first certificate emphasizes the importance of experience in the classroom.

It might be assumed that individual teachers can be trusted to see the importance of continued study throughout their careers, but the fact is that much evidence points to the desirability, and in many cases the actual necessity, of applying some kind of stimulus to members of the teaching profession in order to insure devotion on their part to constant intellectual efforts. Teachers are in contact at all times with immature minds. There is a strong temptation to accept a false standard of mental exertion because of the comparative ease with which an adult with even mediocre attainments can dominate a situation in which he has to deal only with undeveloped and inexperienced young people.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTE MOVEMENT

While school authorities respect experience they have also become convinced that steps should be taken to make sure that members of the teaching profession do not deteriorate. An early example of concern for continued study by teachers is to be found in a request which was addressed in 1838 by Henry Barnard to the legislature of the state of Connecticut. Barnard was at that time the executive officer of the State Board of Education. He asked the legislature to give him funds with which to organize two classes, one of young men, the other of young women. He said that he wanted to show the people of Connecticut "the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving them the opportunity to review and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in the district schools and the best methods of school management, instruction, and government, by means of recitations and lectures conducted by experienced and well-known teachers and educators."

State legislatures had not been persuaded at the time that Barnard made this request that even the preliminary preparation of teachers was of such importance to pupils and to the public in general that state funds should be expended in organizing and conducting normal schools. There were at that time no public normal schools in this country. No appropriation was made for Barnard's proposed classes. He thereupon organized a six-weeks course at his own expense in which he and a number of other educators taught some twenty-five young men along the lines that he had outlined in his request to the legislature. This was the beginning of a movement which spread to all parts of the country. State officials began to conduct so-called "teachers' institutes." Barnard had not used the term "institute" as a designation of his class, but he joined vigorously in the movement which his example had inaugurated. Teachers' institutes became common. They persist in one form or another to this day.

At first teachers' institutes lasted for periods of from one week to several weeks. They have gradually decreased in length so that now they are limited to a single day or at most to two or three days. In many cases the survival of the institute idea is due to the fact that a state law passed years ago is not repealed or an appropriation made by a legislature is continued as a mere matter of routine. The form of in-service training rather than its serious substance is in these ways perpetuated.

DECLINE OF INSTITUTES

The reduction in the length of institutes is the result of two causes, both of which should be fully understood as of vital importance to members of the teaching profession. The first of these is the development of a great number of substitutes for the institutes. Some examples of substitute devices will be described after brief consideration of the second cause. There can be no doubt that the second cause is the resistance on the part of teachers to any form of compulsion which is imposed on them to study in any particular way after they have obtained tenure.

Some years ago the energetic superintendent of a large urban school system made the requirement that each year all teachers reappointed in that system pass an examination in English. His theory was that such an examination served as a stimulus to continued reading and study and that, since the competent use of English is required of every successful teacher, it was perfectly reasonable to demand periodic evidence of improvement in English. It is not clear whether the opposition which developed to the superintendent in that school system can be traced to the examination requirement imposed on the teachers or to other causes, but it is a fact that he moved on in a short time to another post.

Teachers have an idea that is somewhat like that expressed in another connection in one of the doctrines of the Calvinistic creed. That creed makes definite pronouncement with regard to what is described as the perseverance of the saints. Expressed in the language of the street, this doctrine says that anyone once converted to religion can never lose his standing. He is sure of ultimate salvation. All too many teachers, especially after they have secured legislation giving them tenure, are disposed to accept the doctrine that in-service study is unnecessary.

IMPORTANCE OF IN-SERVICE STUDY

Belief in the perseverance of pedagogical proficiency is not readily, and certainly not universally, accepted by representatives of the public. The certification regulations of New York State provide that every ten years teachers must give evidence of some form of study in order to secure renewal of the permanent certificate. The word "permanent" in this case is evidently a relative term. A teacher in New York State cannot secure anything but a temporary certificate until he has completed a year of study beyond the preparation required for his first certificate. Up to date the ten-year renewal rule, because of its recent adoption, has not had to be enforced in any case. It will be of interest to see

how the machinery can be put in operation through the state education office to assure the public that teachers have actually studied each decade to the extent of fulfilling in that period a year of further educational activity.

The reluctance of teachers to accept compulsion for in-service training and study has led to the adoption of a great many devices most of which can be described as substitutes for the traditional institute. Some examples may be cited to show how various kinds of opportunities have been offered to teachers for in-service education.

EXAMPLES OF IN-SERVICE STUDY

Naturally, opportunities of the kind here being discussed are more frequently provided for young teachers than for those who have been long in teaching positions. Some years ago the State Normal School at Westfield, Massachusetts, under the presidency of Charles Russell, brought back its recent graduates for a week of intensive study. Members of the senior class of the normal school were sent out to take the places of the returning graduates. This arrangement served the double purpose of giving experience to the seniors and making it possible for graduates to leave their posts.

Prior to the week when the graduates returned they sent in lists of the difficulties which they had encountered and requests for references to books and other sources from which they could draw materials with which to enrich their teaching. The members of the faculty of the normal school prepared for the week's work so as to be able to give the graduates the help for which they asked. The week also supplied the graduates with the opportunity to make use of the library of the normal school and in this way to get new materials not accessible to them during the year.

The *Journal of the National Education Association* reports that the Eastern State Normal School at Castine, Maine, has adopted a somewhat different form of the Westfield plan. A senior of

approved standing is sent out into the field for a period of six weeks to substitute for a regular teacher. The teacher in turn enrolls for advanced work at the institution.

Other institutions have made provision for follow-up assistance to their graduates in other ways. The Graduate School of Education of Harvard University has for some years had a peripatetic member of its staff who visits graduates of that institution in the classrooms where they are teaching. The School of Education of Stanford University follows a similar plan. It not only arranges for visitations and individual conferences but holds group conferences from time to time on the campus or at convenient centers elsewhere where groups of graduates can readily come together.

A number of institutions have arranged with neighboring school systems to permit students to continue their studies and at the same time serve as apprentice teachers. In a limited number of cases the apprentice teachers are paid for their services.

OBSTACLES TO IN-SERVICE STUDY

It is to be pointed out that payment at the reduced rates which are always adopted when apprentice teachers are employed has been made the subject of protests by local organizations of teachers, which take the position that this type of employment deprives experienced teachers of positions. The contention is urged that apprentice teachers should do nothing more than serve as assistants to the full-time teachers in the schools.

Some communities object to anything that seems to imply that the teachers in their schools to any degree fall short of full professional recognition. When teacher-preparing institutions attempt to combine practical experience with studies, as they do in their so-called "model schools," or "practice schools," parents often feel that their children are being made subjects of experimentation by incompetents. This is in a sense the same difficulty to which teachers' associations call attention when they object

to apprentice teaching. Both situations arise out of the effort to mix teaching and continued study in institutions.

In reply to such objections as have been cited, it is to be said that the institutional supervision which is given in all cases is enough to counterbalance any lack of experience and competency on the part of the apprentice teachers. More important than supervision, however, is the vital enthusiasm and the new contributions to methods and contents of instruction which are brought into the schools by the apprentice teachers.

RISE OF SUMMER SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS

Study in educational institutions during periods when schools have their vacations is easier to arrange than any other form of continuation-course programs for teachers. From about 1900 on there has been a very extensive development of summer schools for teachers. Summer schools of other types were well established in many parts of the United States prior to the date mentioned. The Concord School of Philosophy and Literature, the summer excursions of field classes conducted by Agassiz and other scientists, and, finally, the summer sessions of the Chautauqua Assembly organized in 1874 had made people familiar with the idea that the vacation period can very advantageously be spent in institutional study by all kinds of people who have intellectual interests. The scattered summer courses in the sciences offered by Harvard University were expanded into a regular summer session in the seventies, and in 1887 the State Teachers Association of Wisconsin secured the use of rooms in the State University for the conduct of summer classes. In 1892 Cornell University opened a summer session explicitly described as "for teachers."

The greatest impetus to in-service improvement of teachers through summer study was provided by President William Rainey Harper in the organization of the University of Chicago on a four-quarter plan. This plan made it possible for teachers to utilize the summer vacation for systematic study leading to

the baccalaureate degree or to one of the higher degrees. Although strong criticism to the plan was voiced by many members of the faculties of colleges and universities, it met with the enthusiastic approval of the large body of teachers in public school systems and also of instructors in institutions of higher education, who recognized the possibilities for professional improvement through extended vacation study.

The success of the summer quarter at the University of Chicago was so apparent that numerous other institutions responded to the demands of the teaching profession for opportunities to engage in continued study. Today the summer school is an important part of the educational services provided by the majority of colleges and universities.

President Harper envisaged the needs and the demands for in-service improvement by teachers more clearly than any other educational leader of his time. His vision of the need led him to go far beyond the provision of a summer school as a regular quarter of university work in meeting the demand. Opportunities to engage in systematic home study while employed were provided on a large scale by the University of Chicago through correspondence study and extension lectures. This type of work is now offered by many colleges and universities and is utilized by large numbers of teachers who recognize the desirability of securing institutional guidance for their continued study.

One reason why the summer-school movement took on accelerated momentum about 1900 was that school systems were beginning to require of candidates for teaching positions far more extended preparation than had been demanded prior to that date. The requirements often took the form of a regulation that candidates must have college degrees. The law of the state of California prescribing that teachers in secondary schools must complete a year of study beyond the baccalaureate degree was compelling teachers to use their long vacations for advanced work in colleges and universities. Similar requirements were being imposed on candidates by some of the leading secondary schools in

other parts of the country. There was literally a rush of teachers to summer schools.

With the very general extension which has taken place in the period of preparatory study required of candidates for teaching positions the demand for summer study is somewhat less urgent today than it was during the earlier years of this century. There is, however, a well-established practice of attendance at summer sessions of colleges and universities, which has made these summer sessions the chief centers for in-service study for teachers.

EXTENSION COURSES FOR TEACHERS

Paralleling summer sessions and repeating almost exactly the history of these sessions are extension courses which colleges and universities conduct at centers away from their own campuses to meet the convenience of groups of teachers. Some of the state universities and many state-supported teachers colleges, recognizing their obligations to contribute in every way possible to the intellectual life of the state, send members of their staffs, often to distant centers, to give courses. In some cases these state institutions have organized branches where courses are offered by members of institutional faculties who are regularly resident at the branch centers.

The attendance of teachers of the public schools in college and university classes has given rise to a number of difficult problems. Advanced courses in institutions of higher education are usually designed for the training of specialists. An advanced course in history, for example, ordinarily treats intensively a limited period or deals with the methods of historical research as these methods apply to investigations of some particular topic. Teachers in the elementary schools and in secondary schools are called upon to give their pupils courses that are more general in content and less technical in the treatment of methods than are the courses at the upper levels of higher education. It is a fatal mistake for a student who has been immersed in the specialized forms of study

required of him in a university to attempt to import into the lower schools the material which he covered as a student in the typical university or advanced college course.

College and university instructors have sometimes tried to adjust their courses so as to attract teachers. On the other hand some instructors in advanced courses have insisted that the maintenance of high scholarly requirements compels them to insist that teachers as well as other students learn in exactly the same way the most refined methods of research.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF RESEARCH TO IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT

There can be no doubt that acquaintance with methods of research in specialized fields has advantages. The secondary school teacher or the elementary-school teacher who wants to keep fully abreast of recent advances in any field can be independent and competent in his study only if he knows something about methods of research. That many teachers are discouraged in their study by the complexity of reports of research is attested by the fact that it has sometimes seemed necessary for educational authorities to interpret the findings of scientific studies for the average teacher. The average teacher has evidently found it impossible to take advantage of the scientific literature even in the field in which he has had much professional training. For example, elementary-school teachers have been supplied with a bulletin prepared by the Department of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan entitled, *What Does Research Say?*¹ This bulletin contains a discussion of the findings of research and experimental practice which apply to elementary schools. Questions are asked on sixteen aspects of elementary education and answers are provided on the basis of research contributions. To illustrate

¹ *What Does Research Say? A Statement of the Implications of Educational Research for Teaching in the Elementary School.* Bulletin No. 308. Lansing Michigan: State Department of Public Instruction, 1937. Pp. 146.

the question, "When should phonics be taught?" is asked in the chapter on Reading and Literature. The answer given is:

The National Committee on Reading suggests that instruction in phonics be delayed until the child has established the habit of thought-getting, has a reasonable stock of sight words and has begun to note freely gross similarities and differences in words. Experiments indicate that phonetic training is relatively ineffective during the first half of grade one. Phonics should not be introduced until the child has a sight vocabulary of fifty to a hundred words. Gates suggests that it is good practice to postpone phonetic training until considerable progress in reading has been made.

Any teacher who has problems on which authoritative information is desired might well consult the joint yearbook entitled *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*¹ prepared by the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. This yearbook summarizes the results of educational investigations that have a bearing on classroom procedures in both elementary and secondary schools. Eighteen different aspects of classroom work are considered in the light of relevant research.

Similar digests of the results of research are not available in many fields and the teacher must be able to interpret reports on research for himself. It is his duty to equip himself to do so by pursuing advanced courses even when he cannot make direct use in his own teaching of much of the material that is presented in such courses.

NEED FOR SCHOLARLY PRODUCTIVITY

One unfortunate effect of the extreme specialization demanded in many advanced courses which teachers take in universities is that these courses cultivate an attitude unfavorable to the kind of scholarly productivity that is conducive to the best teaching

¹ *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*. Joint Yearbook of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. Washington: National Education Association, 1939. Pp. 318.

in the lower schools. The teacher of physics in a secondary school, for example, gets the idea that he must make an intensive study of some such subject as pressure of gases if he is to be a real scholar.

Laudable as is the ambition of a student to add to knowledge in his specialty, it is essential that teachers in public schools become aware of a professional motive which ought to guide their work. In-service improvement of a teacher depends on study but is not attained solely through scholarship in the special sense of producing new facts in a particular field of knowledge. Possibly the best way to make clear the view which is here being presented is to adopt a terminology which substitutes the term "productive scholarship" for the much abused term "scholarly research." In order to make the meaning of the suggested term clear, an illustration may be taken from a field other than teaching. The student of English literature is deemed to have done a creditable piece of scholarly work if he writes a short story which has literary character. The writing of the short story may require the most exacting study in order that the writer attain perfection in both form and content. In this sense it calls for research. The outcome is, however, not a report that adds to specialized knowledge but an embodiment of the results of research.

Many of the courses which teachers are encouraged to take even in departments of education in universities emphasize research of a highly technical character. Teachers are encouraged to study intricate problems of testing and to gather materials on such administrative problems as the relation between school marks in different subjects. There is certainly full justification for efforts to promote research in education as a specialty. It does not follow, however, in this department or in any other that all productive scholarship is of a single type. The danger of a narrow interest in one type of scholarship, namely, that commonly defined by the term "research," is that this interest often distracts teachers from making the contributions that they should make to the work of the public schools.

Another illustration may help to make clear the conclusion toward which the argument here presented is aimed. University teachers in mathematics are engaged in research in pure mathematics. They are able, as a result of their inquiries, to give their students insight into profound principles and methods of mathematical thinking. It is a major duty of a secondary-school teacher of mathematics to master as far as possible the results of research in pure mathematics and then to ask and, if possible, answer the question of how these results can be formulated so that they can be presented to immature pupils. It is often said of Euclid that he took the principles of geometry that had been discovered by his predecessors and arranged them in a simple logical order. Euclid's contribution to scholarship was organization, not origination.

Still another example can be selected from the field of history. The specialist in historical research often devotes himself to profound study of the minutest details of the activities and influence of some individual. The teacher of a secondary-school class is not justified in such extreme specialization. He is called on to make that selection of what is known about a historical character which will leave in the minds of pupils a vivid picture and a clear understanding of human progress. It is a mistake for a secondary-school teacher to make his pupils spend time in reviewing the details covered in his Doctor's dissertation.

When a historian writes for the illumination of the general reading public, he selects those incidents which are most meaningful. He does not attempt to canvass every item of knowledge. His function as a selector is often far more arduous than his function as a chronicler. In fact, one of the major drawbacks of the conventional textbooks in history is their drab recital of chronological details all of which are treated as though they were of the same order of significance. Such textbooks destroy the interests of pupils by modeling their teaching on the pattern of profound research.

The use of the term "productive scholarship" in defining the

goal to be attained by teachers is not to be misunderstood as a means of justifying a lower and less exacting form of intellectual effort than that demanded in university courses. Research in specialties needs no defense and is not here underestimated in value and importance. Productive scholarship requires acquaintance with subject matter; but it also requires knowledge of the difficulties that immature minds experience in mastering subject matter; it requires thoughtful consideration of different methods of presentation; and, above all, it requires ability to form a just estimate of the success or unsuccess of a class exercise.

The contrast between research such as many university courses aim to cultivate and the kind of mental effort which teachers are called on to exercise has led in recent times to the organization of certain types of study opportunities for teachers which involve hazards that must not be overlooked. Teachers are encouraged in some institutions to substitute for systematic study of the subjects which they are to teach courses in so-called "solution of problems." Some question is laid before a group of teachers, and they are supposed to reach an answer to the question by comparing their views and discussing possibilities and probabilities of one or another outcome of this or that procedure. The adoption of this kind of discussion as a substitute for study and experimentation is not a means of developing productive scholarship. In order to cultivate scholarship of the type here advocated, the teacher must first of all saturate his mind with knowledge. He must put himself in possession of a great deal more information in the field in which he is to teach than he can possibly present to his pupils. The reason for the demand that he have broad knowledge is that he may have possibilities of selection that are widely inclusive. He must exercise selection with insight and discrimination. He must formulate his presentations with clarity and that kind of simplicity which only a master of both knowledge in a given field and skill in teaching can exhibit. Productive scholarship is a superior attainment. It comes only from continued study of the most systematic kind. It is based on mastery of subject matter and of the art of formulation.

The main purpose of what has been said is to warn teachers that they should not be distracted from their duty to develop a unique type of productive scholarship by the prestige that seems to attach to forms of intellectual effort which are far removed from their duty.

Teachers who ought to be producing fresh, interesting material to be used in teaching are sometimes misled into believing that their only proper course is to study what are sometimes called the "general principles of curriculum-making." The educational world is full of books about the curriculum. There is no end to the syllabi that have been prepared to guide teachers in the making of curriculum materials. There are elaborate reports that show the likenesses and unlikenesses between curriculums in different school systems. In spite of these general abstract discussions of the methods of improving the curriculum, there is much less actual work by teachers on curriculum materials than there should be. Productive scholarship in curriculum construction is far more difficult than investigation of abstract ideas about the curriculum.

UNPRODUCTIVE FORMS OF IN-SERVICE STUDY

Devotion to relatively unproductive forms of study dominates the efforts of many school systems which are trying to organize means of inducing teachers to gain in-service training. This conclusion is substantiated by an examination of 759 reports¹ made by principals of secondary schools in response to a request of the Director of the Discussion Group Project of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to describe any promising practices being carried on in their schools in the interests of improvements. Many of these practices are very

¹ "In-Service Training of Teachers," *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*, pp. 202-12. Compiled and edited by Walter E. Hess, with editorial assistance by Paul E. Elicker. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 92. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1940.

general in character and while representing accomplishments on the part of the individuals reporting cannot be regarded as outstanding; only a few may be classified as distinctly innovative and as greatly in advance of general practice.

A few examples from these reports will help the teacher to differentiate between productive and unproductive in-service activities.

One principal offered the following report:

The entire school system is developing a curriculum improvement program. Three general or co-ordinating committees, each representative of all schools in the city, both elementary and secondary were appointed. One is known as the Committee on Aims and Principles, one as the Committee on Scope and Sequence, and a third, Committee on Teaching Procedures. All of these function under the general direction of a steering committee, consisting of members of the administration staff. In addition, each school building has its own committees on principles, on scope and sequence, and on teaching procedures.

The first work of these committees has resulted in the publication of a 100-page mimeographed bulletin, entitled *A Guide to Curriculum Improvement*. This provides a common philosophy of aims and objectives as arrived at by the teachers themselves.

This statement cannot be read without giving rise to the question: Why not go about preparing some units of the curriculum? The curriculum of schools certainly needs the contributions of constructive scholarship even more than it needs at this time theoretical administrative consideration of broad general principles that belong properly in the science of education.

The principal of another school claims to have conducted an in-service training program for a number of years.

In addition to individual work with teachers, group study meetings, committee curriculum work, attendance at state and regional educational meetings, and summer school attendance, form some of the means through which teachers improve their work.

It would be interesting to know how the teachers in this school evaluate the in-service training efforts of their principal. All

the measures reported may be either productive or unproductive, since their value is determined by their quality and not by the mere fact that they are carried on. What is desired in such schools is a leadership which senses the real needs of the members of the faculty and is able to enlist their support in meeting these needs. The working out of a guidance program, the improvement of the school library, a follow-up study of graduates with a view of evaluating the curriculum, the formulation of a local code of professional ethics, a study of acceleration and retardation, the preparation of a plan for the evaluation of teaching merit, revision of the marking system, and the like are problems, any one of which might serve to bring to a focus the best efforts of the entire faculty during a school year and result in their intellectual stimulation and individual improvement.

The particular needs of individual teachers can better be met through skillful supervision and directed reading. These services are seldom provided through general measures.

Another report of a principal is as follows:

A curriculum committee functions each year for the improvement of the curriculum. Each department is represented by a classroom teacher who, in co-operation with his department head, studies his particular field and department problems. Recommendations and suggestions on how pupils may be more effectively served are made. In this manner, each teacher has a part to play in the construction of the curriculum. The work of the seventh and eighth grades is studied by the ninth- to twelfth-grade teachers. Thus the techniques, appreciations, skills, habits and attitudes, and the content material of these grades are revealed so that the work of the ninth to the twelfth grades is co-ordinated with the seventh and eighth grades. Each member of the committee visits other schools and reports of curriculum work are brought back to the school. Books and magazines for the teachers' library are purchased by the school district so that teachers can keep abreast of current educational developments. Research by teachers is encouraged.

Another principal reports:

At the beginning of the school term teachers are given a list of forty

topics for teacher meetings. Each teacher is asked to rate these in order of her preference as subjects for discussion in the faculty meetings. The order of discussion is determined by the composite ranking of the teachers. Previous to each meeting, teachers are assigned certain phases of the problem to discuss either on the basis of their knowledge in this particular field or on the basis of their evident need to do some work on it. Teachers are selected as leaders of discussion by their co-workers or by volunteering.

FACULTY MEETINGS

Faculty meetings held periodically are the most common device used by administrative officers to increase the efficiency of teachers. The specific purposes of faculty meetings vary greatly with administrative officers. Some superintendents and principals hold such meetings chiefly to improve teacher morale; others utilize the meetings largely for acquainting the staff with administrative routine. In recent years the tendency has been to hold general meetings of teachers for the discussion of professional matters of current importance to the school.

The merits and defects of faculty meetings are well known by experienced teachers. A thousand high-school teachers were asked to specify the types of meetings that had been productive of good results and the types that were unproductive.

The meetings receiving most favorable comment from the teachers in order of preference were those devoted to the discussion of policies and professional problems within the school, the consideration of problems pertaining to professional growth, and the demonstration and critical consideration of procedures in classroom teaching. Meetings most severely criticized by the teachers were long, detailed, unorganized monthly meetings dealing largely with administrative matters, general discussion by administrative officers of the deficiencies of teachers, announcements and explanations of administrative organization and regulations, and critical discussions of failing pupils.

The following is an example of what was considered a good

program of faculty meetings for a school year by the staff of teachers in a large high school.

At the beginning of the year the teachers were asked to hand in three topics which they would like to have discussed at faculty meetings and to star the one on which they would be willing to help prepare a report. These topics were used as the basis for assigning members of the faculty to committees for the preparation of reports which were to be submitted to the faculty as a whole. Because of the number of teachers and the limited number of faculty meetings (eight in the year), no teacher served on more than one committee. In some cases the faculty asked for a second meeting on the same topic. Topics discussed were as follows: (1) marking system, evaluation of work, and exemption from examination; (2) supervised study and length of period (length of period changed from 40 to 55 minutes following this meeting); (3) a point system for the school (point system was adopted as a result of this meeting); (4) character education; (5) leisure time (a hobby show and open house grew out of this meeting); (6) curriculum adjustment; (7) organization of classes, elections, etc.; (8) reports and clerical work of teachers; (9) assemblies; (10) unit organization of subject matter; (11) home-room organization.

In every case the faculty took final action on the report and some phase of school procedure was changed.

A detailed description of the meeting held on Topic 1 is as follows. The faculty committee consisted of six members. Chairman of committee also served as chairman of the meeting. The committee submitted a mimeographed report. Part I dealt with suggested general regulations governing marks. One teacher presented reasons for requesting the change of recording final marks in letters instead of figures as was the existing practice. This report included data from the study of the problem. Another teacher presented by means of lantern slides and mimeographed tables the distribution of final marks for three preceding years in different departments of the school. Faculty discussed

the report and passed motion approving recommendations with minor changes. Part II dealt with the requirements for high honors and honors. Teachers presented data to show how honors had been awarded in the past and indicated the changes that would be made in the methods of awarding honors if the suggestions of the committee were adopted. Faculty discussed this report and finally approved it with minor changes.

The examples quoted make clear the tendency of many — indeed, of most — in-service programs to deal with investigations which while highly important are of the administrative type. If the teaching profession is to develop a field of scholarly activity properly belonging to itself as distinguished from the field belonging to the principal or the superintendent of schools, there will have to be far more initiative in developing that type of scholarship which is needed to raise classroom teaching to a high professional level.

SCHOOL VISITATION

Before specific examples are discussed which show what teachers can accomplish when they undertake aggressive scholarly activities in their own fields, it may be well to devote some attention to several more ways in which school administrators have tried to arrange conditions that will stimulate teachers to improve professionally. The practice was very early adopted of giving teachers time to visit schools or classes other than their own. Visitation has, in general, proved to be of little value if it is not preceded by careful preparation on the part of the visitor and of the teacher visited. Mere casual observation of what someone else is doing without knowledge of the conditions under which work is being done and of what has gone before in the way of instruction is not likely to be illuminating.

A modification of the visiting plan was arranged in Greensboro, North Carolina, which aimed so completely to immerse the visitor in the real conditions under which the visited class was proceeding

that there would be full realization of the differences between the teacher's ordinary surroundings and those in which some colleague was working. Various teachers exchanged places with one another for a day. Prior to the exchange a careful study was made of what had been going on in the classes and of the aims that the regular teachers had been seeking to attain.

INTER-CITY AND INTER-SCHOOL EXCHANGES

Some school systems have adopted the plan of inter-city exchange as a means of infusing new ideas into a school system. The exchange teacher is regarded as a guest for a full school year. Every opportunity possible is provided to facilitate the exchange of ideas between the visiting teacher and the members of the regular staff. Likewise, when the home teacher returns from the year in another school system opportunities are provided for this teacher to share experiences with his associates.

A few cities have modified the inter-city exchange plan and arranged year-long exchanges of teachers in local schools. Exchanges of teachers are arranged between schools with a view of benefiting both the individuals concerned and the staff members with whom the exchange teachers work.

Both plans are regarded with favor as methods of in-service improvement. The plans are considered to produce better results when sponsored by the teachers themselves than when imposed by administrative officers as compulsory training devices.

DEMONSTRATION SCHOOLS

In a number of school systems special schools have been selected as experimental centers. These experimental centers prepare demonstration exercises, which are fully described to visitors in advance. After the exercises a conference is held in which questions are put to the demonstrator and criticisms are

offered which aim to suggest improvements in methods and contents of teaching.

Practices such as those just described aim to overcome one serious difficulty in the field of in-service education of teachers. They utilize, to direct the in-service training, teachers who have the same problems and the same interests rather than outsiders. The formula for the improvement of teachers which is familiar in many educational institutions calls for the dispensing of ideas by an individual of superior training and maturity to a person of less attainments. In the cases cited there is co-operative attack on problems by equals. The teachers participating occupy the dual position of learner and director of learning. If all in-service education of teachers could take on this general character of co-operative effort and could rise to a high level by the adoption and acceptance of standards of scholarship, then an ideal program of in-service education would be in the making.

GROUP IMPROVEMENT PROJECTS

Certain projects other than visitation of classes, which have been organized by groups of teachers for their own improvement may be mentioned. During a two-month period the teachers of Los Angeles County, California, conducted a number of visiting excursions including among other centers of interest industrial and commercial plants. Marked results of these visits were reported to have been seen in the later class work in the schools. Several school systems reported that their teachers organized themselves for the study of local community conditions. The question was raised: What can teachers as a group do to serve the community and better the conditions under which the community lives? In some cases the teachers decided that quite apart from their duties as instructors of pupils they ought to do something to organize community improvements. In one community the teachers organized forums for the discussion of poultry-raising. In another they felt the need of entertainment so keenly that

they organized a local dramatic association. In another they took steps to develop the community library. These activities sound when listed in this way like so many philanthropic or practical undertakings. As a matter of fact, they served to extend the intellectual horizon of those who participated. They made the professional activities of teachers more effective because of the new view that was developed of the meaning of education and its relation to community life.

An essential means of self-improvement of teachers is access to library materials. The isolated teacher who is far from a public library and even the teacher in an urban school system who is near a library of the ordinary type, which is not likely to be supplied with the kind of books that a teacher needs, are seriously handicapped in pursuing any kind of useful study. There is a possibility of relief of unfavorable conditions through co-operation on the part of an organized group of teachers. The principal of the secondary school at Bath, North Carolina, reports as follows:

Teachers of the entire school system contribute twenty-five cents a month toward the development of a professional library. A special room has been set aside as the library room. Books are purchased that relate to the general as well as the specific problems of the school, the teacher, and the pupils. Books and curriculum materials are catalogued and made available by an N.Y.A. student librarian. Teachers can come there for reading, as the room is equipped with chairs and tables. Books are selected by a library committee, composed of the school librarian as chairman and one member each from the primary, the intermediate, and the high-school grades. Teachers make recommendations to this committee. The staff, contributing about fifty-two dollars annually, looks upon this library and workshop as a stimulus to better teaching and to professional growth.

It is to be hoped that in the course of time library facilities will be greatly improved in all parts of the United States. In the meantime, contributions by teachers such as those just described can do something where teachers are near enough together to secure a collection of books. It would even be possible in some

areas where the population is scattered to set up township or county libraries on which individual teachers may draw. The serious limitation of such libraries as can be created in this way is that they do not promise very much in the way of supplying teachers with the kind of illustrative materials with which to enliven the curriculum. They are likely to be too strictly professional in the sense that they deal only with administrative problems.

The discussions of this chapter up to this point cannot fail to leave on the mind of the reader the impression that in-service training of teachers is a field in which there is a great deal of experimentation but little that can be described as generally accepted practice. Perhaps it is impossible to look forward to any high degree of uniformity in this area of education. The needs of different school systems are so varied and the antecedent preparation of teachers in these systems is so diverse that uniform programs would hardly supply what is most needed.

STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

There are, however, in spite of inevitable differences in the in-service programs for teachers, two lines of training which clearly emerge from any survey of present practices as important enough to deserve general attention. The first line of training is that which has been dealt with in an introductory way throughout this book. A teacher has many administrative duties. It is possible to sketch these duties and to introduce prospective teachers to the methods that they should adopt in performing them. Whatever instruction a teacher receives during his preparation with respect to his duties as an administrator it is quite certain that his direct practical contact with classroom operations will create in his mind a wholly new appreciation of the problems to which he has had a theoretical introduction. Moreover, as new administrative devices originate in various school systems, they may advantageously be passed along to

teachers who are in need of help in solving their individual problems. In short, there is a place for continual study of administrative problems.

Where committees are organized to study these problems, they should not devote their efforts to mere discussions. Each member of a committee should be made responsible for a serious report on some one aspect of the problem. Too much emphasis cannot be laid on the importance of requiring formal reports by each member of a committee that is appointed to investigate a school problem. It often happens that the chairman of a committee is expected to do all the work which is to be done. Some of the members of the committee contribute nothing but chatter. If committee work is to issue in significant results and especially if committee work is undertaken with a view to providing for in-service training, reports should be required. One school system had something like fifty persons working on the subject of curriculum revision. The general committee was divided into eleven subcommittees, each member of the general committee serving on at least one of the subcommittees. Inquiry as to the work being done revealed that, with the exception of possibly fifteen persons, the members of the committee discharged their duty by attending meetings and participating extempore in the discussions. Something can perhaps be said in defense of such a committee and such a program of work, but in-service training of teachers calls for a very different type of organization. Every member of a committee should be drawn into active work.

There is no better training in methods of clear presentation than that which comes from arranging for a report to one's equals a body of information gained by systematic study of a particular aspect of a problem. The teacher who has learned how to make a good report will be thereafter a better instructor of pupils. At the same time the work of a committee dealing with an administrative problem will be advanced by studies made by each member of the committee as it could not be in any other way.

STUDY OF INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS

The second line of study and action which should be engaged in by every teacher who is professionally ambitious is that which was emphasized earlier in this chapter where the contrast was drawn between specialized research and productive scholarship. As has been said repeatedly there should be no minimizing of the importance of specialized research. When a teacher has the time and enthusiasm for such research, he should be encouraged to pursue it. It should never be overlooked, however, that the duty of a teacher includes exposition as well as the acquisition or creation of information. Teaching has sometimes been described as an art rather than a science. This description calls attention to the fact that a teacher must organize the class exercises which he conducts in a way which will appeal to the interests of his pupils. He must do something more than retail information. He must use words that are simple enough to be understood by pupils but not so trivial as to alienate them. He must amplify and illustrate the truths which he imparts so that pupils whose mental operations are labored because they are moving in unfamiliar realms will be able to keep pace with the exposition. He must exemplify logic in the arrangement of his ideas so that his pupils will cultivate habits of orderly thinking.

Progress in the art of teaching is the real goal of in-service training of members of the teaching profession. Lest there be misunderstanding of the meaning of this statement, it should be said with all possible emphasis that teachers should keep themselves in touch as far as they can with all that is being produced in their fields of specialized knowledge. No teacher can be competent who does not have knowledge that is authentic and recent. The teacher cannot himself produce this knowledge. He must draw on proper sources for the materials which he presents to pupils. No less worthy of emphasis is the statement that the teacher who would improve his professional qualifications must make progress in the art of exposition. That teacher who fails to

seek good methods of presentation cannot plead extenuation of his shortcomings on the ground that he has made or is making contributions to knowledge in his specialty. A teacher is professionally committed to the duty of proper organization of knowledge.

IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT A PROFESSIONAL OBLIGATION

The statement of a teacher's obligations to his profession which is here defended reveals the reason why schools have made less progress than they should have made in recent years in view of the great effort which has been expended in developing programs of in-service training. It is said that mathematics should be reorganized. It is said that natural science should be so taught as to make pupils observant and competent in drawing conclusions from data. It is said that every citizen in a country like the United States should have a knowledge of social institutions. All these statements emphasize a fundamental principle of education. Who is to put dynamic life into these principles? The answer is that teachers in service have the duty of finding out how to present in concrete teaching exercises the knowledge which is available in the fields where reorganization is advocated. If mathematics must be reorganized, someone has to study the devices by which reorganization can be accomplished. Productive scholarship in mathematics must accept what Euclid did, or it must exhibit the genius necessary to do something that will better fit the needs of the present. If the wealth of knowledge that the natural sciences possess is not properly grasped by pupils, there is a task waiting for some pedagogical leader who will devote himself to study and action that are quite as legitimate as extending specialized knowledge. If citizens do not have understanding of American institutions, the professional teachers of this country should abandon all other undertakings until they solve the problem of developing that understanding.

There is undoubtedly a great deal of productive scholarly work

such as is here advocated going on in the schools of this country. Teachers are producing in their classrooms exercises which are of high artistic quality. It is a great misfortune that these creations are not more frequently made available for general use. It is perhaps charitable to assume that modesty prevents teachers from making public what they have accomplished in instructing their pupils. Whatever the explanation, the fact is that the teachers in American schools are strangely inarticulate. They leave it for a few individuals to make the textbooks which are used in schools. The material in these textbooks has to be expanded in order to make it assimilable by pupils. Teachers who successfully organize class exercises which amplify assignments in textbooks are exhibiting a high type of productive scholarship. If more work of this kind were undertaken systematically as a part of the regular duty of all teachers in service the curriculum would be improved and the teachers would be kept intellectually alive.

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